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ABSTRACT

This publication brings together ideas, techniques, and designs that have been encountered by designers of school community centers. It is intended as a guide to creating a school community center that will meet the needs of a particular community and help make it a more vibrant, healthy, desirable place in which to live. Part I (encompassing chapters 1-3) is an overview that discusses the following topics: the evolution of the school community center, changing profiles and challenges of education, and school community centers today--basic characteristics, programs, planning and design considerations, site, security, and examples. Part II focuses on the process. Chapter 4 addresses interagency linkages. Chapter 5 describes the change process--the change agent, decision-making process, cultivating allies, bureaucratic bargaining, political action, and change to a school community center. Chapter 6 looks at planning for change, including planning groups, planning for action, toward consensus, and forming and weighing options. Part III considers potential barriers. Chapter 7 identifies major barriers to change initiatives in educational systems and other concerns; Chapter 8 discusses solving problems. Topics in chapter 8 are as follows: selecting consultants, compromise, legal issues, funding, complexity, and confidentiality. Focus of part IV is on facility operation. Three chapters (9-11) cover the building, managing the center, and key elements for success. Contains 33 references. (YLB)

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SCHOOL COMMUNITY CENTERS

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SCHOOL COMMUNITY CENTERS:

GUIDELINES FOR INTERAGENCY PLANNERS

By
Joseph Ringer, Jr. and Larry E. Decker

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INTRODUCTION

A school community center is a place where, in addition to formal, structured youth education, educational opportunities for learners of all ages can be provided and many human services needs can be addressed. Its underlying philosophy is that when programs are located at a common site, there are more opportunities for collaboration among service providers and therefore better coordination of programs.

School community centers have different names, as Joy G. Dryfoos discovered while researching her 1994 book, *Full Service Schools: A Revolution in Health and Social Services for Children, Youth, and Families.* They are called full service schools, community service centers, community school centers, family resource centers, etc. Just as there is no one name, there is no one model, because each is designed to meet the needs of a particular community. The common elements are the way they were brought into being, the problems they face, and the strategies they use to remain useful to their communities.

The physical plan of a school community center is not as important as its programs, arrangements, and accommodations. Older buildings have been adapted and grand new ones have been created; what matters is that the facility serves the community's human service needs conveniently and effectively while maintaining the integrity of individual programs in a safe, economical, and pleasant environment.

School community centers have been in existence in many places for many years, but each new one is a challenge to create and a source of pride to its community, providing an opportunity to improve the quality of life for all who reside there. This publication brings together ideas, techniques, and designs that have been encountered by designers of school community centers. It is intended as a guide to creating a school community center that will meet the needs of a particular community and help make it a more vibrant, healthy, desirable place to live.

Part I.

OVERVIEW

Chapter 1

EVOLUTION OF THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY CENTER

> Schools and their habitats are in the public domain, and . . .their services and places are held in common to help all people to increase the common wealth. (Gores 1976)

School buildings have often been viewed as an indication of what a community thinks of itself. Along with churches and the courthouse, they have been the major physical structures in most communities. Schools are one place to which you could always get clear directions.

They were often used for more than educating youth. Early one- and two-room schoolhouses were routinely used after school and on weekends for community meetings and other community purposes, e.g., polling places. The first public high school, English High School in Boston, built in 1821, housed the town watch and firefighters. Small communities often found that both the school program and the community's welfare could be improved by multiple use of school facilities. The multipurpose room served as meeting place, community theater, and gym. The school kitchen sometimes had better equipment than needed for school meal preparation because it was used during harvest season as a canning and freezing center.

Over forty years ago, the National Council on Schoolhouse Construction emphasized the need for schools to serve their communities: "The purpose of the school plant is to provide the physical facilities for the educational program.... It should be designed to provide the facilities required for housing the school and community programs which have been determined as the functions of the schools in the given community" (*Guide for Planning School Plants* 1953). In the years since, many planners have supported the concept of schools serving the broad interests of children, their families, and other members of the community.

Adult education programs to promote literacy, socialization, skill development, leisure activities, and continuing education flourished after World War II. Adults of all ages attended meetings, volunteered in schools, participated in adult education and recreational activities, and looked upon schools as centers of these activities

Because of the postwar baby boom, many new schools were built during the 1950s and '60s. Unfortunately, many of these new schools were built away from populated areas in order to find larger and cheaper sites making access to school buildings more difficult for many parents and adults who wished to use the buildings during nonschool times.

Schools became separated from their communities in other ways. By establishing their own library and transportation systems and health, psychological, and other services, they detached themselves from nonschool community services. Violent children were kept out of the hands of law enforcement and dealt with by school staff and officials. Decisions to track pupils according to standards that the schools established and to assign pupils to certain schools were not subject to review by authorities outside the schools. Baille and DeWitt (1972) accurately described the prevailing attitude:

> As with religion, there has been a separation between general powers of government and the administration of the schools. One consequence of this separation is that the school has tended to be an aloof "temple of learning," a facility which is used for only those activities closely associated with a stringently defined educational process.

The Community School

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, a few communities began developing a new type of school building—the community school. Although no single definition or configuration prevailed, a community school was generally defined as a facility that would accommodate a multitude of human services to address the needs of all ages and interests in the community. Many offered more precise definitions.

> Community School [can be described as] *intergenerational* in that it converts school spaces to 'places for people' ...as being *interagency* by the fact that several human service delivery systems are joined at a common address; and as being *integrational* in that all classes of a community can be served effectively. (Gores 1976)

> Community School [is] concerned with the whole person; [it is a school] which is concerned with bringing services for people together in a way that makes the most effective use of resources, and contributes to a sense of community. (Richardson 1976)

> Community School [is] a community center in which many community human service programs in addition to formal education take place during the same time frame with the patrons of several programs hav-

> ing programmed access to all specialized areas as their needs require; the Community School may be operated by more than one governmental agency. (Ringers 1976)

> Community school is a facility that is open beyond the tradition school day to provide academic, extracurricular, recreational, health, social services, and work force preparation programs for people of all ages. (National Community Education Association 1994).

In addition to the community's needs for programs and services, part of the impetus for developing community schools grew out of taxpayer resistance to school bond issues. Schools entered into partnerships with other agencies for multiple occupancy of new buildings, and taxpayers who supported increased school taxes were rewarded with adult-sized gyms, auditoriums suitable for theater groups, craft rooms, expanded adult education opportunities, branch libraries, after-school child care, preschool and day care programs, and other people-serving functions.

By the mid-1970s, about 30 such human resource complexes were in operation in this country with an additional 250 in advanced planning stages (Decker and Pass 1974). Some of the best known were:

- T. C. Williams Center in Flint, Michigan
- John F. Kennedy Center in Atlanta, Georgia
- Martin Luther King Center in Atlanta, Georgia
- Dana P. Whitmer Center in Pontiac, Michigan
- Hamilton County Center in Tennessee
- Highland Community Center in Washington, D.C.
- Thomas Jefferson Center in Arlington, Virginia

The new concept was not restricted to the United States. There was worldwide interest in the concept of better use of schools to provide better services to communities. The Organization of Economic Development, a division of UNESCO, identified cultural and educational centers in Great Britain, France, Germany, Australia, and other countries that provided secondary and adult education as well as social services, libraries, sports, performing arts, and other community services and activities.

The community school was promoted by other organizations. The Council of Educational Facilities Planners recognized community schools as a major issues in 1975. The Educational Facilities Laboratories, funded by the Ford Foundation, promoted the community school concept, issu-

ing newsletters and offering consultant services and grants to communities that were developing such projects.

Community Education

Many states enacted community education legislation to encourage programs in which a public facility is used cooperatively by multiple agencies. The intent was to provide services to community persons of all ages in response to their identified needs, interests and concerns. Community education emphasized providing opportunities for local community members, schools, and other organization to become partners in addressing educational and community concerns. Implicit in the community education concept was the belief that:

- Learning is a continuous, lifelong process, a continuous spectrum.
- Everyone has a stake in education, and citizens have a right and responsibility to be involved in their community center schools.
- Schools should be open to the community, and services should be expanded to serve the entire community; at the same time, community resources should be used by the school. (Boo and Decker 1985)

Community schools became the usual model of community education in practice. To implement this concept, a community school director was employed to coordinate multiple use of the school facility. The director worked with an advisory council of community members to assure that programs were responsive to the community's current and future needs.

Recognizing that the title "community school director" appeared to align the position directly with the school program, many communities changed the title to community education director. In 1974, the national professional organization of community school directors changed its name from the National Community School Education Association to the National Community Education Association (NCEA).

In 1995, a NCEA committee reviewed community education as it is currently practiced in the field and delineated its primary components as:

- **Lifelong Learning**
  - Understanding that learning continues throughout life.
  - Providing formal and informal learning opportunities throughout all of life's stages.
  - Providing programs and services for all community members, including opportunities for intergenerational interaction.

- **Community Involvement**
  - Promoting a sense of civic responsibility.
  - Providing opportunities for community members to develop and use their leadership skills.
  - Promoting the inclusion of diverse population in all aspects of community life.
- **Efficient Use of Resources**
  - Using fully the community's physical, financial, technical, and human resources to meet diverse needs.
  - Reducing duplication of services by promoting collaborative relationships among schools, organizations, and agencies.

Legislation

During the early 1970s two federal laws provided added impetus to the development of school community centers. The Community Development Act (Housing and Development Act of 1974—P.L. 93.383) established a program of community development block grants in response to the needs of deteriorating neighborhoods and their low- and moderate-income residents. The purpose was to "encourage community development activities which are consistent with comprehensive local and area wide development activities." Eligible activities included the development of neighborhood facilities, senior centers, parks and playgrounds, recreational facilities, and other public improvements directed toward improving community services and facilities (Ringers 1976).

The Community Schools Act, also signed into law in 1974, encouraged interagency planning, operation, and programming. It was the first federal legislation to fund community education programs

> ...in which a public building, including but not limited to a public elementary or secondary school or a community or junior college, is used as a community center operated in conjunction with other groups in the community, community organizations, and local governmental agencies, to provide educational, recreational, cultural, and other related community service for the community that center serves in accordance with the needs, interests and concerns of that community. (Ringers 1976)

Community schools legislation was also enacted in many states. Early legislation was primarily directed toward specific services, such as in Virginia's legislation permitting school buses to be used for nonschool purposes, and public libraries to be located within school buildings. Later

state legislation tended to fund model programs from which other projects could draw. State initiatives included:

- Minnesota—Youth Development and Family Services
- Maryland—Multi-Service Delivery Centers and Integrated Service Delivery Centers
- New York—Community Schools
- New Jersey—School-Based Youth Services
- Florida—Full Service Schools
- Kentucky—Youth and Family Service Centers

Federal legislation to help fund community schools was passed by the U.S. Congress in 1994. However, the long-term fate of federal funding was clouded by the 1994 mid-term elections in which the Republicans gained control of both the House of Representatives and the Senate. The Community School Program cosponsored by Senators Bill Bradley (D., New Jersey) and John Danforth (R., Missouri), for example, which was attached to the 1994 crime bill as a prevention strategy, was targeted for repeal in the Republicans' 1994 campaign document, "Contract With America." The money saved by repealing prevention activities authorized in the crime bill would be spent to construct more prison cells, according to the Republican platform.

Still, the idea of using public schools as safe havens for children after school hours, and as centers for community efforts to address community needs, gained powerful political advocates in the crime bill debate. Writing about community schools and what they could do for young people in our communities, Senators Bradley and Danforth, joined by Attorney General Janet Reno, said:

> When school lets out at 3 p.m., many kids have no place to go—too many are without adult supervision or organized activity. Especially in cities, most kids live in fear....Every community has a building that could offer young people a calm and safe place to spend time—buildings that house libraries, gyms, auditoriums, computer rooms, and art centers. These buildings, the public schools, are often padlocked by 3:30 or 4:00 p.m....
>
> School teachers and administrators have their hands full with education from 8:30 a.m. to 3:30 p.m. When the last school bell rings, we want to help the community take care of its children. The Community Schools Program will not ask the school system to extend the day.... Community organizations, local governments, businesses, police, and residents will apply for funds to keep schools open after hours and will work together to develop programs for their youth....[and] in their efforts to build a better life for the next generation. (Reno et al. 1994)

The Canadian Perspective

Early in 1992, the Ontario, Canada, Ministry of Education recognized the need to maximize the use of limited public funds and supported community cooperation through community-based, multi-use ventures. In a memorandum (Silipo 1992) to the chairs of school boards, the Minister of Education stated that "although criteria for such projects are still subject to consultation, the basic concept of seeking other partners in proposed school projects should be part of a [school] board's planning process."

By 1993, criteria had been developed, and Ontario's Minister of Education and Training urged the chairperson of the Etobicoke, Ontario, Board of Education to "wherever possible, jointly plan for needed facilities by taking into account the criteria for the Community-Based, Multi-Use School Facilities initiative" (Cooke 1993, memorandum). The minister pointed out that the Regional Office analysis process for reviewing capital expenditures would consider the extent to which that community planning, including the involvement of local agencies such as child care providers and municipalities, had been incorporated into the process at the school board level.

Chapter 2

CHANGING PROFILES AND CHALLENGES

The political, social, and technological changes that have occurred around the world over the last quarter century have affected every aspect of our individual and communal lives, leading to changes in the way we prepare our youth for life and dictating the need to help people of all ages adapt their skills for life today and tomorrow.

Families

Two-parent families with a housewife mother and working father were the norm before and just after World War II. Today they represent only a small percentage of households. The demands of daily life and work-related functions consume large amounts of parental time and deprive many youth of close associations with their parents. The time required for work, food shopping, medical and dental care, arranging child care, and other obligations may reduce considerably the time available for nurturing, guiding, and supervising children. When these everyday tasks must be performed by a single parent or by a family that is already under stress, children suffer even more. Examining the data from the 1990 Census, Hodgkinson (1992) noted:

- 8.7 percent of all births are to single teens.
- Almost 25 percent of children live in single parent families.
- 466 out of every 100,000 youths age 10-17 are arrested for a violent crime; for 18-year-olds, the rate rises to 1,348 out of every 100,000.

Communities

Poverty, crime, and homelessness increased in both cities and suburbs in the 1980s. In the absence of suitable employment and affordable housing in center cities, those who could leave fled to the suburbs, and from inner suburbs to outer suburbs. Those who remained in the older neighborhoods often had more severe mental, social, economic, and physical problems. Youths were most affected by these conditions—some before they were born—especially by drug and alcohol abuse, lack of prenatal care, and poverty.

"Community" and "neighborhood" no longer describe places people can trust. For many youths, there is no "neighborhood." Their loyalty

may be to "the project" or to one of the many gangs that define their own turf and consider violence the only way to protect it.

Schools

The flight from inner cities to suburbs has affected schools. When older sections of cities and inner suburbs were redeveloped, former residents often moved into new subsidized housing, taking inner city problems with them. Drugs, crime, and violence found their way into the schools. The flight of those who were able to relocate to better housing and schools left many school buildings with fewer students. Some school districts faced both declining enrollment and shifts in enrollment to areas where new schools had to be built.

With multiple problems arising in most communities and states, a widening gap has developed between the public funds needed and the amount provided for support of public schools. Moreover, there is growing taxpayer resentment to the high cost of educating youths who fail to achieve minimum acceptable standards. Taxpayers have also defeated efforts to raise money for needed improvements in facilities, forcing such makeshift arrangements as temporary classrooms and redistribution of school populations.

The traditional school day has itself become a problem. School schedules were originally determined by the needs of an agrarian society, which required making extra labor available during the planting and harvest seasons. In small towns and cities, most children were able to walk to and from school without hazard. Parents were home to see them off in the morning and receive them in the afternoon. There were constructive activities and chores to do on holidays, weekends, and during vacations. Today, many children fend for themselves before and after school hours. Many have no supervision or planned activity. School hours and holidays may not coincide with the hours and holidays of working parents and other family members, so all family members suffer from education's failure to adjust school schedules to the realities of today's society.

Economic conditions contribute to the problem, especially if housing costs and basic living expenses require both parents to be regular income producers, often working at more than one job. This situation is exacerbated in single-parent households. Data from the 1990 Census reveal that:

- 82 percent of all children under 18 have working mothers.
- Six out of 10 mothers of preschool children (under age six) work outside the home on at least a part-time basis.

- 75 percent of households maintained by a single woman and with children under age 18 live in poverty; their median income is $10,982. (Hodgkinson 1992)

Educators who have attempted to involve parents more directly in the education of their children are handicapped by a complex interplay of the family and housing issues, including:

- The existence of homes that never were homes in the conventional sense.
- Parents who give birth to children for whom they are not prepared.
- Children who give birth to children.
- Multiple family groups that occupy spaces intended for only one family.
- Substandard housing.
- Homes in which children are not loved and may be abused.
- Families with little or no income or resources.
- Single parent families.
- Children whose parents are rarely at home.
- Living conditions that permit no privacy.
- Families who have so many problems that school discipline is a minor concern.

Declining and Shifting Enrollments

After overall school populations peaked in the late 1970s, declining and shifting school enrollments left unused spaces in many schools. As a result of declining enrollment, approximately 8,000 school buildings in the U.S. had been closed by 1988 (Brubaker 1988).

Many battles were fought over what to do with surplus school buildings. Community members fought to keep their local school open. Other agencies asked to use the vacant space. City leaders talked about selling the buildings. Some tried to have surplus buildings converted to other community uses. Others sought to have the vacant schools "mothballed" until enrollments grew once again, raising questions of where to find the money to maintain surplus or underutilized schools.

In some cases, schools or parts of schools were used for special programs (e.g., adult education), special functions (e.g., data processing), maintenance, or storage purposes. Some communities entered into lease arrangements, providing income while maintaining ownership of the property for future use. Some vacant schools were converted into housing, human resource centers, performing and visual arts centers, park and

recreation centers, private schools, churches, senior centers, child care centers, health clinics, centers for special needs populations, manpower training centers, alternative schools, branches of universities or colleges, etc.

Potential for Conflict

When two or more programs used the same school space at different times (for example, when adult programs were held in regular classrooms), the term "shared use" was applied. When there were enough empty classrooms to permit space to be dedicated to a tenant's sole use, the term "parallel use" was used. With shared use, there were frequent conflicts between users, and much administrative time was spent resolving problems.

Even with parallel use of space, there were problems. With nonschool patrons attending programs while schools were in session, there was a need to restrict some adult behavior, and school administrators had to determine who had a right to be in the building and who did not. Many ad hoc arrangements were made, but there was a reluctance to formalize them. The schools wished to preserve their turf, while other agencies wished to gain some.

In spite of initial difficulties, the new cooperative arrangements, shared use of resources, and collaborative ventures often proved successful. The value of coordinating the services of various professionals to deal with the problems of youths and families, and the economy of multiple use of resources were gradually recognized and promoted. As a result, many states and the federal government adopted legislation that encouraged such arrangements. Governing bodies began to recognize the need to develop new configurations for service delivery systems and to bring multiple resources to bear on problems of the general population.

Where various agencies successfully settled into the schools, some new personal and professional arrangements developed. Social service agency personnel took their breaks in "teachers' rooms," where conversations were professional and mutually beneficial. Recreation departments that sponsored after-school activities were able to explain their programs to students and staff and recruit participants. People in the senior center programs volunteered for tutoring, library work, oral history projects, and other activities that brought them into contact with children. A performing group that used school space for storage and the making of puppets found ways to demonstrate and share their work with

students. Police officers presented programs in the schools, assisted in career guidance and training, and provided a sense of security within the school building. The advantages of collaborative efforts were documented, and ideas for joint projects began to be developed on a wider scale.

Kahn and Kamerman (1992) suggest that services integration could lead to increased educational effectiveness.

> Services integration discussions in Washington over the past several years have turned frequently to the schools, both in the context of the administration's and governors' commitments to education reform and out of the recognition that the schools are a universal institution. Perhaps social change demands a broader role for the schools in a world of changed families and communities; perhaps schools responding to such change will, as they develop broader services and redefine responsibilities, become more effective in their educational roles.

Importance of Coordination

A strict interpretation of the authority of school systems discourages the extension of services to school children beyond school hours, creating an obstacle to the use of school buildings for nonschool community purposes. Further, if the school principal and staff are in charge, other agencies, nonschool service providers, and patrons of nonschool services may feel that their programs and needs receive less attention than is required or appropriate.

To address coordination and accommodation problems, many communities adopted a community education model. In some, a professional community education coordinator with the status of assistant principal was employed to work with an advisory council of community representatives to develop and coordinate new programs as well as create closer linkages between the educational and community aspects of the school community center. In another model, a facility manager with the rank of assistant principal managed and assigned space but did not become involved in program development.

In a few communities, the new facility was managed by a completely new entity; the educational program had to present its space needs and budget requirement to a new council, just as other programs did. One such program was the Buffalo, New York, Town Center project begun in 1974. The school board financed and owned the classrooms, the media center, and administrative space. Shared-use portions of the 200,000-foot complex were financed by Urban Development Corporation funds. These portions included a gym, arts and crafts rooms, kitchen and dining

rooms, industrial arts space, performing arts center, and homemaking space. A board of directors from the participating agencies and community maintained and operated the facility. The school board leased space for its programs, and the city agreed to assume all lease obligations not met by the school board or other users (Ringers 1976).

Chapter 3

SCHOOL COMMUNITY CENTERS TODAY

It is logical for schools as basic human service agencies to be involved in partnership with other agencies in helping youths and their families adjust to and participate in today's society. Dealing with the growth, development, and problems of today's youths and their families is a complicated process in which many agencies must complement the work of the schools. When those agencies are co-located within the schools, the tasks can be made simpler. Co-location results in better use of limited resources and is more economical in terms of the time and effort required on the part of those who give services and those who receive them.

When a facility is to be occupied by several agencies, there is an opportunity to provide larger, better equipped, and more functional spaces than any one program might afford separately. Co-location also allows increased sharing of information and resources. The compatibility of programs and acceptance of the location by the prospective patrons must of course be considered. School administrators may be reluctant to accept such social services as drug, probation, and pregnancy counseling because of the potential interaction between students and social services clients. Similarly, some social service clients may be reluctant to seek services in a school building if they believe that their problems are attributable in part to the educational system. Participating agencies must consider these and other concerns and decide whether or not the obstacles can be overcome.

To avoid some of the most obvious reasons for conflict between various programs and their patrons, attention should be paid during the planning phase to structured separation of programs unless there is a specific need or intent to share space or program initiatives. When space is to be shared, space assignments should consider control and security as well as ease of use.

The character of space can be altered to allow for greater comfort, better acoustics, and a more pleasant environment through the use of color, textures, and graphics. Accessibility by the handicapped and the elderly must be assured. Information kiosks, boards, or message centers within the facility are helpful, especially for those who do not use the building on a regular basis.

Basic Characteristics of a School Community Center

A basic premise for a school community center is that the co-location of services will provide closer relationships among the agencies and services, and that those services will be more readily available to patrons. The successful school community center has five basic characteristics:

- It is planned and operated through participative planning processes that involve a representative cross section of the community.
- It is jointly operated by several agencies; the lead agency is usually the public schools.
- It is funded by a separate budget that is subject to regular review by all participating agencies.
- Programming is determined by a council of participating agencies and representative community advisory groups.
- It is administered by a unit manager with the advice of program managers from participating agencies.

Programs

Every community will have a different mix of programs. While many of the programs will be those of public agencies, some may be the contracted services of for-profit providers operating under a regulatory agreement. Most school community centers have:

- Educational and recreational programs for youths and adults.
- A health unit—medical and/or mental.
- At least one social service unit to help patrons access specific services.
- A law enforcement unit for security or counseling.
- A government satellite office to assist with various services or programs: to resolve problems or conduct necessary transactions (tax payments, pet licensing, food stamps, etc.).
- Auditoriums for large and small group meetings, performances, and rehearsals, plus space for stagecraft, dressing, storage, and project development.
- Indoor and outdoor physical activity areas separated for school use and community use; appropriate floor surfaces to maximize use; and separate shower and locker rooms for schools and community users (including those with limited mobility).
- Patron service areas, including:
  - Food service area such as snack bar, vending machines, or caterers.

- Nursery or day care space.
- Waiting areas with public phones, information boards or kiosks, TV, etc. at all entrances at which public transportation is available.

Planning and Design Considerations

Structured separation eliminates many sources of potential conflict between different programs and patrons. Separate parking areas, entrances, administrative and reception areas, lounges and restrooms, storage and staff work areas should all be considered in the planning process. Providing structured separation requires designers to develop a facility plan that may be different from that of a typical school. The plan should consider the need for:

- Easy facility access for all users.
- Accessible assembly areas.
- Practical program location relationships.
- Flexible and adaptable space.
- Adequate support space.
- A safe environment.
- A healthful environment
- An aesthetically pleasing environment.
- Efficient and economical communications.

Site

The school community center should be easily accessible to the population it will serve. The site should be as large as resources will allow, reasonably level, and adequately drained. Other elements to be considered include:

- Convenience to public transportation, or accessible on foot.
- Good separation and traffic control on site to permit alternative uses of paved and playground areas.
- Good lighting throughout.
- Lighted blacktop areas for multiple use as parking lots, playgrounds, and evening recreation such as basketball, dances, etc.
- Grass and landscaped areas for recreation such as garden projects, checkers, and other table games; natural areas for passive use, etc.
- Attention to the needs of those with limited mobility, such as differently textured walks, accessible water fountains and outdoor toilets, roving security patrols, call buttons, etc.

- Protected and easily supervised play areas for children in day care and school programs.

Security

A security system is required for a complex school community center, and a security specialist should be on the architect's planning team during the design phase. The variety of persons and programs envisioned for such a facility requires that attention be paid to basic security measures. The goal is to allow patrons easy access to functions and yet provide security for all patrons and for the facilities.

Examples of School Community Centers

Midtown Community School. In 1992 Midtown Community School in Bayonne, New Jersey, replaced two 90 and 100 year-old schools. The new community school serves 1200 students, pre-kindergarten through the 8th grade, and their families. This facility houses:

- Pre-kindergarten and full-day kindergarten classes.
- Police Athletic League (PAL) program and recreational leagues.
- Extended school day latchkey programs.
- School-based counseling program for at risk youth funded by the New Jersey Department of Human Services—Project CONNECT.
- Senior citizen mentoring program with students.
- Multi-cultural center for English as a Second Language (ESL) and bilingual students.
- Completely air-conditioned building for an extended school year.
- Large auditorium for community concerts, theater arts, and senior citizen events.
- Magnet school elements to attract students to attend the school and facilitate voluntary movement of students to achieve integration.
- Comprehensive special education and Child Study Team services.
- Substantial corporate support from Merck and Company, Optical Data Corporation, J. R. Nabisco, New Jersey Bell, and New Jersey Department of Education.
- Youth enrichment programs.
- Adult education.
- Summer day camp.

Howe Avenue Elementary School. Howe Avenue Elementary School, located in Sacramento, California, is an older K-6 school with an enrollment of 744 students. It began its reorganization into a commu-

nity school in the Spring of 1988. The goal was to develop a one-stop family service center. The following chart shows the pattern of interagency service connections to students and families that has evolved (Jeffers and Olebe 1994).

Howe Avenue Elementary School, Sacramento, California
Interagency Service Connections and Deliveries to Students and Families

Academic Support
- Special Education-SD
- Vocational Education-SD
- Adult Education-SD
- Home/Hospital Instruction-SD
- Sierra Nueva-SD
- CSUS Teacher Training-CS
- Assistance League-LP
- Drop-out Prevention Project-SF
- Chapter 1-SF
- SB-1274 Restructuring Grant-SF

Health Care
- Health Screenings-SD
- Women's Medical Auxiliary- LP
- Nursing Interns-CS
- Nutrition Program (CHDP)-LG
- Sutter Health Center-LP
- Dist. Special Education Nurse-SD
- Dist. CHDP Nurse Practitioner-SD
- Vision Care-LP
- County Health-LG
- Sacto El Dorado Medical-LP

Family Support/Parent Education
- Even Start-SF
- Child Welfare & Attendance-SD
- Bilingual Education & Project-SF
- QEP-SF
- Children's Center-SD
- Parenting Classes-SF
- JTPA/GED Project-SF
- WEAVE-LP

Counseling
- District Counselors-SD
- CSUS Counseling Projects-CS
- West End Counseling Center-SF
- Career Development Counseling-SF
- LaFamilia Counseling-LP

Mental Health
- District Psychologist-SD
- Sutter Psychiatry, CS
- Heritage Oaks-SF
- County Mental Health-SF

Youth Development
- Health Academy-SF
- School Resource Officers-SF
- Parks & Recreation-LG

Substance Abuse Prevention
- District OSAP-SD
- Alcoholics Anonymous-LP
- Peers Against Substance Abuse-SF
- Just Say No Club-SF
- QUEST/Tribes-SF
- Students Assistance Project-SF

Human Assistance
- SCUS Social Work Interns-CS
- Cities in Schools-Social Work-SF
- RSVP Volunteers-LP
- Medi-CAl Eligibility-LG
- County Social Services-LG
- Local Religious Organizations-LP

Key
- SD-School district resources/program
- LP-Local private sector resources
- CS-California State University, Sacramento
- SF-Specially funded projects/grants
- LG-Local government agencies/

Part II.

PROCESS

Chapter 4

INTERAGENCY LINKING

Interagency projects, including school community centers, link community agencies into more effective and more economical delivery systems. They allow for the coordination of the efforts of the cooperating agencies. The ultimate goal is the establishment of a working arrangement in which agencies communicate, cooperate, collaborate, and develop other supporting arrangements. Interagency projects need not threaten existing agencies, although change inevitably results from joint activities.

READINESS FOR INTERAGENCY LINKAGES

Certain conditions may indicate a need to link various community agencies and consolidate service delivery:

Economic Conditions

- Shrinking job markets
- Taxpayer resistance to capital projects, annual budgets, etc.
- Costs rising faster than tax base
- Need for major expenditures
- Inability to attract and hold personnel
- Service areas expanding more rapidly than resources
- Advancing technology and resulting equipment obsolescence
- Major layoffs
- Funding cutbacks
- Industry moves into/out of the community
- Rising energy costs

Social Conditions

- Declining or expanding school population
- Increasing elderly population
- More people with special needs
- Changing patterns of diverse populations
- More parents needing child care services
- More single parents
- Rising crime and vandalism

Special Circumstances

- Population shifts
- Major highway or other construction
- Major changes in land use
- Natural disaster
- Advocacy groups demanding change

When a school is to become a school community center, it must make a commitment to developing interagency linkages. It must be willing to provide space for agency programs that are compatible with the school program and local needs. School staff must be available to develop a plan of action that will include: identification of acceptable agency programs; strategies for interesting those agencies in the concept; methods of identifying relevant community needs; and plans for the management, funding, staffing, and operation of the center. In addition, a coordinator for the center must be designated.

Agencies may join a school community center for a variety of reasons:

- Combining essential services at one location conserves the energy of both participants and providers.
- Sharing surplus school space or constructing multi-use space may result in reduced operating costs for agencies.
- Having other agencies in school buildings fosters support for the schools.
- Participating programs may be enriched through cooperative efforts.
- The number of community residents who support the operation and maintenance of the building is expanded.

Beginning the Networking Process

In every group or agency, there are individuals who seek change, and who look outside the agency to achieve it. These people often create ad hoc, informal arrangements to achieve their purposes; this is the first level of interagency linkage. Ad hoc designs involve a willing exchange between individuals. They may result in subtle changes in the function and structure of individual agencies. People who engage in ad hoc arrangements are usually responding to a need or an opportunity, seizing upon a way to achieve results at little or no risk to their own situation. They are people who will be important to their own organizations because they will have demonstrated openness to change. They will also be in a position to assess the risks and gains that may result from interagency partnerships.

Ad hoc arrangements usually are:

- Designed to improve a specific work situation.
- The result of one individual's ingenuity in response to a particular opportunity or need.
- Informal arrangements that do not change institutional goals or directions.
- Small steps toward the solution of a larger problem.
- Cooperative arrangements between individuals to improve the situation of each with little or no loss or risk.
- The result of casual communication activities.
- Arranged by personnel at the operating level of an agency.

If the initial ad hoc arrangements are successful and communication links are established, they will attract the attention of other agency staff and clients, and advocates of networking will begin to identify other opportunities for linking. The concept of linking will begin to receive

attention at the departmental level of the agency, and the effectiveness of the arrangements will be examined. As departmental linkages are created, more formal structures will be established.

Networking is often the first formal recognition of interagency linkages. Networking, the process of establishing a system to exchange information about the structure, services, capacity, and interests of participating agencies, may lead to an information and referral system designed to provide the best service to clients.

Networking is:

- An interagency communication system to coordinate activities.
- A forum to consider mutual support arrangements.
- A process to consolidate or unify human service delivery systems.
- An information and referral system to assist those who need service.
- A forum to anticipate future community needs or opportunities.
- A structure for joint planning and coordinated program development.

Groups involved in networking frequently create a directory of services available within a community. The process of compiling a directory brings into focus the various interest areas of the agencies being surveyed and often discloses areas of duplication and overlap. This becomes an opportunity for the agencies involved to consider which one is best able to deliver the duplicated service, allowing the other agencies to use the resources no longer needed for the transferred service to improve or enlarge other areas of service.

Compromise is an important strategy in networking. During the process of defining the "turf" or "domain" of the participating agencies, there are opportunities for coordinated planning. The understandings reached in networking activities are recorded in memoranda of understanding documenting the agreements. These simple administrative statements record the need, the commitments made, and the linkers responsible for seeing that the compact is honored.

Program Coordination

As new services are required in communities, agencies are established to provide them. An effort is usually made to coordinate new agencies and services with those already in existence, but there are often difficulties in synchronization. For example:

- One agency may find it requires procedures that are different from those of other agencies.

- An agency may restrict its services to a special segment of the population or to a particular need of the general population.
- The involved agencies may use different means or styles of communicating with the general public or with special populations.
- The agencies may be located at different places in the community.
- Individual agencies, lacking full funding, may have to restrict the scope of service, the clients served, or operating times.

Each of these conditions has the potential to impair the unity of an overall system of human services. In addition, legislation may impose restrictions and discourage the expansion of service capability, as when the privacy rules limit the sharing of client information.

Program coordination is often a product of networking. Formal arrangements, such as departmental agreements or policy statements, are required when coordination involves joint program responsibility, combined funding, or exchange of resources (personnel, equipment, or facilities), joint tenancy or ownership of property or buildings, or joint responsibility for addressing specific problems. While such formal agreements may be developed by agency personnel, it is advisable to have them reviewed both by the policy board of the agencies involved and by legal counsel to reduce risk and determine whether other action is required.

School Community Centers

As described in Chapter 3, a school community center is a public building that houses several human service agencies, including a school. In large communities, it may house satellite activities of large agencies, but in small communities it may be the single location of all or most of the human service agencies. It is administered in a way that promotes coordination of the various programs and services offered that are relevant and convenient to the neighborhood or community in which the school community center is located.

Each center will be different from all others, since its programs will be geared to the needs and resources of that community, the mix of participating agencies, the legal and other conditions existing at the time it is established, and its assigned mission. One thing all centers should provide is a coordinated information system in order to maximize the service capabilities of the participating agencies.

Schools are logical sites for school community centers because they are usually convenient to both patrons and non-patrons of the educational programs. In most communities, the school plant represents the

largest local public investment in facilities and it has the capacity for longer periods of service than educational programs generally require.

Significant gains are realized by the educational program and the community when schools become multi-service centers responsive to the needs of the community. Careful planning should include participative decision-making procedures that permit all community members to be represented in the development of policy statements that recognize the values, goals, and priorities of the total community.

Policy statements usually include:

- Policy—brief summary of the governing body's intent and the limits it will tolerate with respect to an item of concern. The language should be brief but clear, since different parties will bring different backgrounds and motives to the development of a policy statement. It should contain statements related to what is to be accomplished (purposes), legal authority or constraints, and relevant prior actions or projects.
- References—pertinent laws and opinions, with cross-references to related policy statements or regulations.
- Supporting procedural agreements—organizational chart and limits of authority; operational matters such as management, administration, staffing, and programming; and financial subjects such as budget preparation and approval procedures, sources of funds, authority to spend, and authority to revise allocations.

Creating a School Community Center

The creation of a school community center is an ambitious undertaking, requiring skill and knowledge. Smaller projects involving interagency linkages are often attempted first in order to test the compatibility of potential partners, experience the sacrifices and gains that may be expected, and accustom staffs to new ways of working. These small projects may create a better climate for cooperation and provide an opportunity to measure the attitudes of those affected by the programs—clients, operating staffs, administrators and managers, elected officials, the community at large, neighbors, existing advocate groups, and others.

Making the decision. The decision to engage in ad hoc relationships usually is made by operating personnel of the various agencies. These staff members may recognize that their performance would be more effective, their burden somewhat relieved, their clients more satisfied, or their mission accomplished more economically under such an

arrangement. Ad hoc arrangements are "soft," in that they require no formal action and may be terminated at any time by any of the parties. The decision to act or not to act usually rests with one person or a small number of individuals. Ad hoc arrangements are very fragile. Created for a particular purpose, they depend upon the continued interest of key individuals. When staff changes occur, ad hoc arrangements may be suspended.

Decisions to engage in more formal arrangements are made by groups of persons at various levels. In the human services, these groups often include clients and other lay people who are affected by or concerned with the programs that will be affected. Involvement in the planning process by lay people and people from non-planning occupations in several agencies is known as participative decision making. Their involvement often yields outcomes that are more satisfactory and more acceptable to the community than individual planning efforts or planning that takes place in isolation from the community. The inclusion of non-agency individuals does change the decision-making criteria because the cost-benefit analysis may be less concerned with economic efficiency than with the relevance, value, and effectiveness of the services. Although a project joining the abilities of several agencies may result in a more cost-effective project, it frequently increases the quality of service or expands the service to such an extent that costs increase.

When a school is to become a school community center, the school administrator must consider the impact of this designation on the educational program, which is the school's first responsibility. Following are some of the questions that should be considered:

- Are there school needs that might be satisfied through linkages?
  -added learning experiences
  -volunteers and other resource personnel
  -cost sharing for major items, such as capital improvements, equipment, and overhead
  -greater energy efficiency
  -expert assistance with noninstructional matters
  -political support
- Would there be any significant problems that could not be resolved within a reasonable amount of time with a reasonable amount of effort?
  -staff resistance or retraining
  -program interrelationships

-space assignments
-arrangements for sharing equipment and special spaces
-administrative control
-housekeeping and managerial arrangements
-legal, liability, financial requirements
-political interests
"turfism"

- Does the linkage present a significant opportunity to become a partner in community development through:
  -coordinated planning efforts
  -conservation of community resources
  -opportunities to improve or expand necessary services
  -coordinated occupational and career training, retraining, and skill development
  -reduction in overall costs for necessary community services
- Would public educational programs be helped by:
  -closer relationships between the general and educational communities
  -expanded learning opportunities outside the traditional school setting
  -improved coordination with other human service programs
  -improved communication with other segments of the community
  -easier accessibility of school buildings for other community purposes
  -conservation of limited educational funding

The planning process. Planning is simply an organized procedure for reaching a desired goal. It is a continuous process employed to deal with current problems or anticipate future events or conditions. Planning may be done by professional planners or managers using sophisticated techniques, or it may be done through participative procedures in which professionals and nonprofessionals interact.

The planning process includes:

- Preplanning, including vision building and goal definition.
- Identification and selection of participants.
- Identification of options and review of alternative methods.
- Determination of format, objectives, organization, and staffing.
- Publicizing progress and reporting results.
- Assessment of the process.

Community planning should be participative to be effective. Every community decision is a compromise and may favor one section of the community over another. Planning activities should provide opportunities for iden-

tifying shared community goals, values, and priorities. Participative decision making permits use of the wide variety of skills and expertise that may exist within a group. The benefits of involving the community in the planning process are manifold. This involvement:

- Promotes more effective and creative linking of existing resources.
- Engenders pride and fosters support for programs.
- Creates a pool of communicators and resource people for the project.
- Eases community tensions and feelings of powerlessness.
- Establishes a sense of community and creates ownership for the project.
- Fosters interaction between administrators, staff, and involved community members.
- May help identify future staff members and volunteers.
- Helps prioritize community needs.
- Creates a forum for resolving differences.
- Raises the overall public image of the agency or agencies.

Who should be involved? Ideally, the entire community should have opportunities for participating in the planning. If that is not possible, a representative group should be selected from various segments of the population. Some will be representative of the current or potential power structure. In addition to these known leaders, effort should be made to include potential patrons, representatives of the agencies involved, and persons who may be politically effective in supporting the end result. Dissidents may bring a sense of reality to the work of the group, and may be co-opted by their peers into a supporting role. Opposing views will temper the project, making it less objectionable to other opponents.

One person should be designated by the appointing body as chairperson pro tem until the group is in a position to elect its own chair. A staff member should serve as liaison to the appointing body to secure necessary materials and information, and to aid the chairperson in structuring the progress of the committee. This staff member should offer opinions only when invited to do so.

The advantages of involving a variety of people in the process include:

- Getting to know and understand other points of view.
- Developing a common understanding of the problem.
- Determining goals and values represented in the community.
- Reaching a consensus on community priorities.
- Identifying and reducing potential barriers.
- Identifying and mobilizing existing and potential resources.

Chapter 5

THE CHANGE PROCESS

Change is always taking place, yet those who try to accelerate the rate of change or work for particular types of change are often criticized. Those who work alone to bring about change, or who work in groups that lack a clear understanding of why change is necessary, what the options are, or what impact each option might have, are particularly subject to criticism. But change need not be a radical process. It can be a rational process in which a problem is identified, the options for addressing it are analyzed from various viewpoints, and decisions are made recognizing their impact on various segments of the community. The important factor is that opportunities be provided to introduce ideas for change from any point in the system.

The Change Agent

Although individual problems often become community problems, public organizations and agencies are frequently slow to respond to them. The very nature of most agencies and organizations discourages innovation; bureaucratic routines, adherence to rigid policies, and fear of risk-taking tend to make bureaucrats creatures of habit and to discourage potential change agents.

There are people at every level of society who have the qualities necessary to become change agents. They are people who believe that things could be better, even though others may be satisfied with the way things are. They are convinced that old methods are ineffective and are willing to try new ones. They are able to envision a multitude of solutions for the problems they recognize or take advantage of opportunities they see. Hard workers with persistance, they are able to cope with the frustration of not finding rapid acceptance of their ideas.

These people frequently set out to help groups bring about change by serving as informal organizers. The following chart describes a variety of points at which change agents may enter a system and have their proposals for change considered in an orderly fashion.

Principal Actors	Activities
	[Vision]
Change agent	Recognizes problem or opportunity. Makes personal decision to attempt change. Creates new vision. Enlists others in vision.
	[Process]
Change agent and colleagues	Analyze the problem or opportunity. Make group decision to attempt change. Assemble an advocacy team or support base.
	[Data]
Advocacy team	Gathers and analyzes relevant data. Asks questions: 1. Where are we? 2. Where do we seem to be heading? 3. Where do we want to go? 4. What alternatives are available? 5. How can we get there?
	[Program Needs and Direction]
Participative decision making (PDM) group—staff, governing body, patrons	Considers needs in terms of community goals and objectives. Considers options. Considers diverse community needs and interests. Reaches consensus on group values. Develops criteria for evaluating options. Evaluates and ranks options.
	[Preferred Option]
Task force of PDMs	Campaigns to have decision makers accept selected option.
	[Implementation]
Decision makers	Authorize change.
Decision makers, staff, volunteers, community members	Implement change. Measure effectiveness. Make modifications as required. Recycle process to maintain effectiveness.

Generally, the goal of change agents in such a process is to combine or reorganize dissimilar services or systems into new arrangements and forms that are more responsive to current or projected needs. The results

of such activities are not usually radical but modest changes that are more acceptable to those who are affected by them.

The Decision-Making Process

Leadership to make change—the decision to take a risk—results from stimuli as varied as the individuals who experience them. Whatever the stimulation, it is not until the discontent or the desire for change becomes sufficiently strong that a decision is made to act.

Decision making is both a personal and a group process. Each person must consider the limits within which an acceptable decision may be reached. Every group decision involves compromise. Groups can listen to the rationale of individual members and reach a consensus on which solutions are acceptable. Compromise is the key factor. Consensus does not require that everyone be completely satisfied, but it does require that individual members not be in direct opposition to the group position. One positive result of the consensus-building process is that group members are exposed to different values and priorities and sometimes become more tolerant of those with opposing views.

The decision-making process involves dividing a problem into manageable parts; clarifying individual or group criteria for comparing potential consequences of the problems and the relative merits of various solutions; and reaching agreement on the range of acceptable solutions. It usually involves taking these steps:

1. Identify the problem or opportunity.
2. Identify the factors that caused the problem or opportunity.
3. Seek sources of relevant information in order to formulate alternatives.
4. Determine a rationale for making choices:
    a. What are we trying to accomplish?
    b. What sacrifices are we willing to make to accomplish this?
    c. What alternative solutions can we tolerate?
    d. What values and beliefs should be considered?
5. Identify acceptable alternatives.
6. Adopt rules and values for ranking the alternatives.
7. Reach consensus on group values.
8. Make a decision and begin the process.

Many tested processes are available to help groups reach consensus. Each requires full and frank discussion among the group participants. Most necessitate that individuals establish their own positions before participating in group activities that lead to consensus. Consensus may

not fulfill all of the expectations of every member of the group, but no *necessary* member of the group will be completely dissatisfied.

Cultivating Allies

Most individuals do not have the power to bring about institutional change; groups of individuals are needed to have the necessary impact. Individuals who seek change must become leaders and form a team that will plan a strategy to influence decision makers.

There are several ways to cultivate allies. One is to seek supporters through informal associations that encourage the sharing of ideas. The potential leader must be willing to make contributions to the group in order to earn support for desired projects. This process of "horse-trading" requires active participation by all who would earn chits that can be called in when appropriate. It also helps a person learn and appreciate the interests and values of others.

By participating in community group activities, an individual learns who gets things done in the community and who has access to individuals who may be important to the project. Often, many allies make up the team to perform the various tasks needed to move the project forward.

One of the early activities should be the identification of "who knows whom" in the formal and informal power structure of the community. This may be done with a simple questionnaire asking about possible associations—professional, personal, social, political, religious, etc.—members of the group may have with people who are potentially important to the project. It may also be accomplished by talking to people at places frequented by the power structure— churches, libraries, clubs, and associations, for example. Team members who have useful contacts can develop linkages between the project and power groups by reminding power structure members of their other associations.

The next step is to find out what support is required in order for the venture to succeed. Two questions must be answered: Who or where is "the power," and who can access and influence it?

There are many techniques for finding the power structure in a community. One method involves asking a number of active community members where the power is and then comparing their answers. Another method is to search public documents (newspapers, minutes, voting records, etc.) to find names that surface in regard to important issues in the community. Having made a tentative judgment about the power base (and one should expect to find that there are many power bases in a

community, depending on the issues) the next task is to figure out how to make contact with those who have power. The backgrounds of allies are important at this stage in order to find out who has contacts of one kind or another with those who have power.

Contacts may be useful to gain the support of the power base or merely to acquaint it with the proposal. Then a strategy must be devised for a campaign to have the project considered by those who have the power to make decisions related to the project.

Initial contacts need not be made through top people in the affected agencies. Strong relationships are often founded upon the success of lower-level linkages that do not threaten either agency. These smaller projects establish a climate of trust upon which larger projects may be more easily formed. Therefore, allies should be cultivated at all levels. Anyone who wants to help should be a member of the team. Those who will be needed, but are not initially interested, may eventually be won over by the original team members.

Bureaucratic Bargaining

Bureaucracies hold important places in communities and have enough clout to contribute to the creative solution of problems through interagency programming. Bureaucracies earn status in a community through the number and type of clients they serve, the size of their budgets and types of purchases, the communication methods they use to publicize their accomplishments, and the reputations of their leaders. When those key personnel can be matched with persons involved in an interagency planning effort, a degree of support may be developed in the existing agencies, no matter what their organizational positions. It is these relationships that must be discovered and developed in order for agencies and change agents to arrive at an understanding of their roles in the new arrangements and to learn how the power of individual agencies may be increased through coordinated efforts.

Political Action

Political action in this context is the process of influencing those in power to change priorities and shift resources. The individuals or agencies who seek to bring about such shifts must exert power.

Power is derived from a variety of sources. Elected officials have power by reason of public support and their elective positions. Nonelected officials seek ways to exert power over elected officials. Power some-

times derives from wealth or economic importance (large employers, for example), or status (clergymen, etc.). Agencies have different levels of power in a community for similar reasons—for example, because they control resources or serve large groups of politically active people. Individuals and agencies may exercise power individually or jointly; if their concerns are merged with those of others, they may create a unified base from which to exert power.

Change to a School Community Center

Change may start in many places. The key is to have a structure that permits the process to happen. The change process may start at the top levels of an organization and be implemented at lower levels, but changes that result in such interagency projects as the development of a school community center are more often initiated at an intermediate or lower level, or even outside the bureaucratic structure of the agencies involved. The change process starts with one person, regardless of that individual's position in an agency or the community. The effective change agent recognizes a need or opportunity and is able to persuade others to become allies in responding to it, perhaps even sacrificing personal goals for community gains. Change agents must use political power to achieve their purposes and to sustain a new program through its early stages.

Chapter 6

PLANNING FOR CHANGE

Planning is an organized procedure for reaching a particular goal. It is done both consciously and unconsciously by individuals, and formally by organizations. The process used may be simple or sophisticated. In work settings, planning is often carried on simultaneously by groups and individuals.

Planning for interagency projects such as school community centers must combine planning for the project, planning for the separate agencies involved, and planning for the affected individuals. Planning thus becomes a set of strategies: action toward the established goals, reactions expected from those affected, and alternative actions for compromise and consensus building. What all this really means is that planning for interagency projects and school community centers should be flexible enough to permit deviation that might be necessary to expand support for the stated goals.

Planning activities for interagency projects bring different disciplines together and involve different strata of the community—often people who have not previously worked togethr and who have different backgrounds and training. Most decisions will be compromises. Decisions test the tolerance level of the participants and are usually reached on some middle ground. Every plan developed for an interagency project should permit the participating planners to make their own contributions and develop their own logic for making sacrifices in order to participate in the larger gains offered by the project.

Participative decision making does not mean that professionals abdicate their responsibilities, but it does mean planning "with" rather than "for" the community. This process requires time and structure. Because it often brings individuals together in unconventional ways, participative decision making may require a motivator or facilitator, plus special training activities.

Participative decision making often takes the form of consultative planning, in which a planner or planning body seeks advice from various segments of the community on actions that will affect them or from an outside consultant. Alternatively, it may involve seeking consensus through a network of existing groups. The form of participative decision making is as important as the process itself when measured in terms of

sured in terms of power sharing and may be a reliable indicator of the degree of security the group leader feels.

Group planning is a rational decision-making process that allows members to work toward a common goal within the constraints and expectations of each group with minimum sacrifices and acceptable gain for all. In the case of interagency projects, there are likely to be differences in planning methodologies that will require agreement on a "plan for planning."

The plan for planning is the initial effort to reach consensus on goals. It should result in clear assignments to perform certain functions during the planning process, and the establishment of timelines for completion of various components of the plan. A result should be that group members have a better understanding of the project's goals, the time and effort required to achieve them, and the level of commitment required of each agency and individual.

Planning Groups

The initial team of allies formed to bring about change is only one of the planning groups that will be involved in developing interagency programs leading to the establishment of school community centers. While the initial group may consist only of advocates for a particular cause, subsequent groups may also include those whose interests would be affected by the proposal. Some types of planning groups are:

Alliance—a union of existing groups or agencies which is formed to serve a common interest.

Task force—a temporary group appointed to accomplish a particular purpose within a specific time.

Committee—a group (ad hoc, study, or advisory) designated to look into and report on some matter .

Commission—a more permanent group established to exercise specific powers as an agent of the appointing authority.

Some of these groups have formal powers and others do not; some are temporary and others are permanent. They may be composed of people of widely different skills and interests who were selected to fulfill particular roles. Whatever the composition, each group must be given a clear charge or charter delineating its mission, authority, duration, and the expected results. The charge may specify the relationship of the group to the appointing body or operating agency and may be as simple as an oral understanding or as formal as an ordinance. The method of operation is

usually left to the group. The selection of leadership may or may not be left up to the discretion of the group.

The Charge

The charge tells a group why it was chosen, what it is expected to do, under what constraints it must operate, and what it is expected to produce.

- Purpose—what is to be done.
- Access routes to necessary information and assistance.
- Authority and responsibilities.
- Time constraints.
- Resources available.
- What is to be done with the results.
- Any other groups that are working on relevant activities.

The group should have an opportunity to discuss the charge with the appointing authority to clarify understanding of its functions.

Planning for Action

While a plan for planning may be initiated by community members in order to focus attention on a particular concern, the process of developing a plan for action is normally instituted by those accustomed to planning. The initial activities in planning interagency projects must be concerned with the following: (a) who should be on the planning team; (b) what groups should be invited to name representatives; and (c) how the chairperson should be chosen. Next, the planning group should receive and discuss its charge—what it is expected to accomplish, how long it will have to accomplish it, and what end product the appointing body expects.

Throughout the planning stages, and during most phases of any project, six questions should be asked and answered:

- Where are we?
- Where do we seem to be going?
- Where do we want to go?
- What alternatives are available?
- How can we get there?
- What do we need to get there?

The quality of planning depends on the creativity of the people involved. Creativity brings something new into existence. It may require, not new resources, but new combinations or uses of existing resources. Because creativity is not bound by old thinking patterns, it breaks down the barriers of custom and limited understanding—and even of existing

legal constraints, because laws are made by people and can be changed by them.

In order to encourage creativity, there should be opportunities for examining data, for viewing conditions, for talking with and listening to those who have experience in the areas of concern, for using existing services and facilities, for role-playing in order to broaden perspectives, and for both making and hearing presentations. Each participant should try to understand the impact of the existing situation as well as that of the proposed solution from as many viewpoints as possible.

Initial Planning Group Activities

- Getting to know and understand other points of view.
- Identifying persons to be involved
- Deciding whether to use existing groups or create new groups.
- Deciding which exisiting groups should be represented.
- Developing a common understanding of the problem.
- Determining goals and values represented in the community.
- Reaching a consensus on community priorities.
- Identifying existing and potential resources
- Developing a proposal to be presented to the community and decision makers.
- Producing a timeline for the recommended action plan.

The planning group should assemble all prior studies and reports, gather and analyze relevant data, and conduct such activities as are necessary to determine community goals and priorities. The first step is to develop a "wish list" of items members of the community would like to have if resources were unlimited. The next step is to reduce that "wish list" and reach consensus on which items should have priority and which the community may expect to achieve.

The process of reaching a consensus on priorities may be made easier through the techniques of gamesmanship—using hypothetical situations to consider new arrangements for service delivery. Gamesmanship provides a way to be less emotional about proposed changes; it allows biases to be aired in a less hostile atmosphere than one in which real situations are discussed. Whether games or other techniques are used to reach consensus, some basic rules must be observed.

Toward Consensus

The following basic rules for reaching consensus include some that were developed specifically for

- Activities should not pit one group against another.
- Activities should be positive in nature and aimed at reaching consensus.
- The facilitator should exercise care not to reject ideas or solutions, but seek to find better or more acceptable solutions.
- Activities should permit opportunities for all to participate at each stage, yet not require participation.
- Activities should not require the use of unusual or sophisticated materials with which some participants may feel uncomfortable.
- Activities should be easily understood.
- Rules should be flexible enough to permit participants to wonder temporarily from the stated goals during the process.
- Activities should not embarrass or offend participants or other members of the community.
- The facilitator should recognize that some participants want only to observe the proceedings, not take an active part.
- The views of individual participants should be held in confidence to the degree that those participants wish; the facilitator should be sensitive to these wishes.

Forming and Weighing Options

The purposes of planning include the discovery of available options, consideration of the relative advantages and disadvantages of each, and prioritizing them in a manner consistent with community values. Arrangement of the options with recommendations concerning the relative merits of each is a great help to those who must make the ultimate decision of whether or not to proceed with a proposal.

Planners and planning groups should consider various arrangements for programming, management and staffing, housing the programs, and financing them. Each of these subsections of planning can be considered by subgroups of the main planning group, but prioritizing the various options should be done by the entire group. If any segment of the planning group feels uncomfortable about the final report, it should write a minority report. Each agency must then evaluate the proposed new arrangements in terms of the potential gains and losses that might accrue to the agency.

Part III.

POTENTIAL BARRIERS

Chapter 7

IDENTIFYING OBSTACLES AND CONCERNS

> "Historically, education has by law been substantially removed from the blood and sand of the political arena. It is understandable therefore that schools have not been eager seekers of partnerships with other agencies of like purpose." (Gores 1976)

The need for collaborative relationships between educational and human service agencies has been described by Dean Corrigan (1994), chair of the Association of Teacher Educators National Commission on Interprofessional Education to Create a Collaborative Education, Health and Human Service System:

> As the education and human service needs of children and families have expanded and become more complex, it is more and more apparent that boundaries of professional responsibility as reflected in our existing service delivery system are often dysfunctional and uncoordinated. There are several populations of children and families currently being served independently by multiple education, health and human service providers. Up to now, at policy and political levels we have responded with single issue or categorical programs as each education, health and human service concern has been brought into focus. This approach will no longer suffice. Services must be coordinated and partnerships between educational and community agencies must be created in order to be responsive to the needs of children and families today.

Change Is Difficult

The logic of collaboration seems obvious, since it affords an opportunity to provide better, more convenient service at a lesser cost. Why then is it so hard? The National Center for Service Integration (1994) identified some of the barriers that prevent communities from attempting to form partnerships for services:

- The current system's structure may require large-scale systemic changes.
- The complexity and categorization of human services programs (federal-state-local) pose significant obstacles.
- Building a financing strategy on the basis of complex federal funding streams requires considerable time and expertise. Differences in eligibility rules also thwart financial planners.

- Many local programs dc not have the time or expertise to identify specific federal barriers.
- Federal categorical programs have local constituencies who make the actual pooling of funds difficult.
- Federal and state categorical reimbursement policies hinder and confuse efforts to provide needed services, particularly when programs blend staffing roles.
- State funds for school-linked services create the perception on the part of other agencies that the initiative was designed to "help schools with the problems they face" rather than to be a community-wide effort.

Major Barriers to Change Initiatives in Educational Systems

The Institute for Educational Leadership (1992) identified the following as factors that thwart efforts to effect change in an educational system.

- *Time.* Change takes time. Collaboratives must work with political and business leaders to enable them to understand what basic reform entails.
- *Fear.* Change is not easy for most people.
- *Race and class concerns.* These issues are just below the surface in most collaborative dialogues.
- *Lack of trust.* People who do not know each other and who may have to compete for funds tend not to trust each other.
- *Lack of rewards for collaboration.* Existing reward systems are geared to the goals of individual agencies and organizations. Rewards for working together are few. People are recognized when they can take credit for leadership in a specific initiative, rather than when they share credit for a mutual effort. For systems change to take root, reward systems must also change.
- *Failure to get commitment of "middles."* Since middle management will guide implementation, their commitment is essential.
- *Differences surrounding categorical funding.* Collaborators must learn each other's systems and jargon.
- *Confidentiality.* Often listed as an obstacle, this issue is rarely a serious problem.
- *Legal and administrative issues.* Creative "barrier-busting" collaboratives can overcome such problems as liability insurance differences..

The Florida Department of Education (1993) has for many years had a program that encourages communities to form collaborative arrangements among human service agencies, including full-service schools. The state has identified the following difficulties that must be overcome if projects are to be successful:

- Different institutional cultures and schedules, and lack of resources.
- Lack of understanding on the part of community members and agency staffs about the purpose of establishing a full-service school.
- Inadequate role clarification among school and agency staff.
- Insufficient local resources for support services such as child care and transportation.
- Difficulties in obtaining facilities on school grounds.
- Inadequate staff to meet students' needs.
- Conflict between school schedules and full-service schools' funding cycles.
- Difficulty in sharing information about families across agencies.
- "Turf" conflicts between local agencies.
- Consensus that real reform depends on a process for providing local flexibility in return for accountability in terms of child, family, and community outcomes.

Other Concerns

Collaboration is a mutually beneficial, clearly delineated relationship entered into by two or more organizations to achieve common goals. The relationship requires a commitment to define mutual goals and to agree upon a jointly developed structure for sharing responsibilities, authority, accountability, resources, and rewards. An agency's decision to enter into a collaborative relationship presumes a willingness to make changes in spite of the difficulties and concerns that are likely to arise as a result of those changes.

Staffing. Staffing the school community center is difficult because of the variety of types of personnel needed to function in such a setting, the different attitudes required, and the diversity of patrons to be dealt with. In *Full Service Schools,* Dryfoos, (1994) describes the varied personnel needed:

> At least 40 different kinds of personnel work in today's restructured schools, ranging from nurse practitioners, substance abuse counselors, volunteer senior citizens, case managers, and community police to clergy. These people usually are not paid by school systems but by health, mental health, and social service agencies, youth and employ-

> ment agencies, mayors' offices, labor unions or universities. Funds come from state and federal sources, foundation grants, and local contributions.... Teachers in these schools are trained to pay attention to individual differences, organize stimulating and relevant curricula, abolish tracking, and encourage parent participation. Their new partners handle the primary health, mental health, and social needs of the people in the school community.

Institutions of higher learning are not prepared to train the professionals who would serve in such a facility. Appropriate selection procedures and extensive inservice and on-site training are required for professionals, service personnel, and volunteers. Administrators must work together to develop staff members who can work successfully in this new environment.

Confidentiality. One of the most frequently mentioned barriers to partnerships in the human services is the perceived difficulty of protecting confidentiality in dealing with a child or a family. Most professionals—in education, mental health, health, law enforcement, etc.—are reluctant to share clients' records or other confidential information. Serious professional and legal issues are at stake, but there are ways to deal with them without violating the basic right to privacy or being exposed to litigation.

Facility design. The collaborative project may require modification of existing space or the construction of new space to meet the requirements of multiple users and various regulatory bodies. Architects and planners of school community centers encounter many different groups, requirements, and regulations. Security and environmental concerns (heating, cooling, etc.) may be more complex than in a single-user building.

Administration. Many administrative questions must be dealt with in the daily operations of an interagency project:

- How and by whom will referrals be made?
- How will priorities be established?
- How will privacy issues be resolved?
- Where and how will funding be obtained?
- How quickly will resources be available?
- Will regular programs be impaired?
- How can budgets be coordinated for joint efforts?
- Who will measure effort and by what standard?
- Who will govern and coordinate effort?

Program staff. Agency staff members may be concerned about their turf when other agencies move in for parallel or shared use. Problems

may arise about assigned new roles or old roles that will have to be given up. Some staff members may consider the new arrangements a threat to their power or influence in the community. Questions will arise about whether the new name for the project recognizes the partners, and how the community perceives the new arrangement. There may also be concerns about differences in staff compensation or changes in the professional requirements for new roles. Other staff concerns may include:

- Safety and security; emergency systems.
- Suitable private work space and storage areas.
- Timely availability of space and equipment.
- Convenience of mechanical services.
- Scheduling and assistance with technical equipment.
- Cleaning and maintenance schedules.

Custodial and maintenance issues. Operating staff may have difficulty adjusting to new working conditions when agencies decide to share space. Staff must be deployed differently.

The staff must be deployed differently to provide for:

- Longer hours of operation (extended days, nights, weekends, etc.).
- Equipment scheduling and servicing.
- Greater variety and numbers of patrons, often with different expectations and demands.
- Traffic flow of patrons inside and outside the building or complex.
- Occasional users and special programs (demonstrations, fairs, etc.).
- Concessionaires.
- Climate control for groups of various sizes.
- Fire, safety, and security concerns.

Security. Concerns about security go beyond the need to protect property. Schools can no longer be supervised adequately by hallway or restroom monitors. Today's problems are caused by intruders; drugs, thefts and holdups, the carrying of various kinds of weapons, physical violence, and other life-threatening situations. Entrance to a school community center must be carefully controlled to keep out unauthorized persons and prevent criminal activity.

Legal obstacles. Legal obstacles or problems may result from federal, state, and local statutes or regulations. A review of existing legislation may disclose that laws are unclear with respect to proposed conditions or action. If agreement on the interpretation cannot be reached at the planning level, further opinion must be sought.

The Challenge

Each difficulty related to collaboration becomes a challenge to establishing an interagency project. The difficulty may arise from differ-

ences in values, a lack of understanding about what is being attempted, fear of the unknown, inadequate communication, or lack of staff training. The challenge is to reach agreement or understanding on the answers to the following questions:

- On what issue is there conflict?
- How did this issue surface?
- Who or what groups are concerned with the issue?
- Why are they concerned?
- What are the current positions of each side on the issue?
- What is the range of positions acceptable to each group?
- Are alternative solutions possible?
- Which alternative solutions are unacceptable to each side?
- Which alternative solutions are most acceptable to each side?
- How far is each side willing to move to reach agreement?
- How will the accepted solution be announced in order that each of the parties preserves "face"?

An Illustration: Merging Library Services

In a school community center, many agencies retain their integrity while others are encouraged to combine and unify services because of their similar programs. Merging services may mean some loss of identity, or at the least, some loss of autonomy.

School libraries and public libraries have much in common. While agency heads and patrons may reach agreement that consolidation of these programs would be a major advantage to the community, the staffs of the agencies would have many concerns. The merger may be especially complicated if the school and library districts are not coterminous.

While there is not general agreement on whether school and public libraries should be merged, mergers have been accomplished in many places. Humberwood Centre Development, Etobicoke, Canada was able to put a school and a public library under one roof, but the libraries are on separate floors and function independently. Arlington, Virginia, established a public branch library containing technical materials in a secondary career and technical education center; the school did not have a separate school library. The Washoe County, Nevada, Library System formed a partnership with the Washoe County School District to cooperate and maximize services at schools, giving the general public access only after the school day ends. These examples represent three different attempts to improve library services at lower costs.

In cases where school and public libraries have been merged, a great deal of effort and skill was needed to change the school learning center into a community learning center. Some of the problems and policy issues that must be resolved are discussed below.

The Collections. Collection development is the most important professional difference between school and public libraries. Materials in school libraries relate to curriculum needs, and acquisition is heavily dependent on teachers' recommendations. Public library acquisitions reflect the requests and interests of a much more diverse group of patrons.

Procedures and policies for the selecting, acquiring and handling of library materials would have to be reviewed, along with the allocation of book budgets between adult and children's collections. For example, media centers in school libraries often set aside certain materials for use by specific groups; they usually prohibit the taking of audio-visual equipment out of the building, in contrast to public libraries, which may permit such equipment to be checked out. Policies regarding the jacketing for books, restricted access to certain materials, use of library cards, height of stacks, kinds of furniture, etc., must also be reviewed.

Staffing. Each library's staff would be concerned about the number and type of positions to be maintained, as well as the relationships between them. Salary and fringe benefit plans would have to be reviewed; adjustments may be required to coordinate them. It might be necessary to "grandfather" in some of the fringe benefits to which some employees have become entitled. Differences in retirement and medical plans would have to be reconciled. Staff qualifications, certification requirements, training and supervision would also have to be considered.

Work assignments (hours, schedules, responsibilities) and compensation levels for each position would have to give consideration to their impact on other positions in the school community center. Professional leave policies and staff development activities would all have to be reconsidered and perhaps revised.

Operations. Because school and public libraries operate at different hours and days and have different yearly calendars, problems are likely to arise in setting salary levels and work schedules for staff members.

Funding sources may also be a problem. Public libraries often receive restricted gifts or bequests. Non-coterminous mergers would involve funding from more than one funding body. Different funding sources might have different budget procedures and calendars. Since

merged public and school libraries are not the norm, applications for grants from any source might be more difficult. If the administration of the school community center is under a new entity (neither school nor library), the processing of applications might cause difficulties.

Patrons. Use of a school library is usually restricted to staff and students, while all community residents—sometimes even nonresidents—may use a public library. Security, parking, entrances, restrooms, and access for people with special needs are concerns that must be addressed when school and non-school patrons are accommodated in a merged library system.

Chapter 8
SOLVING PROBLEMS

Interagency projects have some common problems, which may be categorized as follows:

- Problems with interpersonal relationships, including real or imagined threats to power or "turf."
- Legal issues, including authority over certain domains, the ability to engage in certain activities, and the power to act.
- Problems resulting from the complexity of the proposal, including the number, type, and size of the groups to be included.
- Communication problems between the proposed partners, or with the clients, patrons or governing bodies.
- Problems with differing agency norms, procedures, and operating guidelines.
- Problems with resource acquisition and disbursement.

Solving these problems may be difficult because they involve complicated interactions and interrelationships. Prudent planning requires anticipation of as many problems as possible and the development of strategies and techniques for resolving both anticipated and unanticipated problems. Planning activities should include investigating the experiences of those who have faced similar situations.

Selecting Consultants

A few individuals (or even just one) skilled in the ways of government and the art of influencing individuals and organizations are key to problem solving. These individuals often assume subtle leadership roles as they help those who will be affected by the project create new combinations of service while maintaining a sense of stability for themselves and their agencies. These subtle, tactful leaders enable others to help themselves and achieve more than they could alone.

When an organization decides to make major changes, hiring an external consultant to help coordinate the process may be desirable. This outside person is usually seen as someone who has no personal stake in the outcome and is therefore neutral in the deliberations.

An organization that employs a consultant has a responsibility to:

- Describe the objectives.
- Describe how the consultant is expected to serve and specify whether his or her reports are to be in writing.

- Give the consultant a community profile.
- Let the consultant know about the fears, anxieties, dreams, and early successes or failures of the project.
- Alert the consultant to actual or potential trouble spots.
- Plan a meeting between the consultant and key people preceding larger public meetings at which dialogue may be more difficult.
- Plan a debriefing session—even if there is to be a written report—shortly after the service is rendered.
- Report the results of the consultant's recommendations soon after the service has been rendered and invite a reaction.

In selecting a consultant, the organization should consider:

- The consultant's relationship with similar projects (ask for and check references).
- The consultant's effectiveness in delivering services (ask to see copies of prior studies and reports).
- The cost of the service and details of what can be expected: the time required, written reports, subsequent consultations, etc.
- The consultant's requirements in terms of resources needed to perform the work effectively.
- Travel, housing, and other requirements and how to provide them.

To get the greatest benefits when working with consultants, the organization and the consultant need to:

- Agree on the problem.
- Agree on the objective.
- Agree on the method.
- Agree on the resources necessary to reach the objective.
- Agree on the date by which the objective must be achieved.
- Commit themselves to working together to implement the recommendations.
- Hold regular meetings.
- Conduct regular progress checks, making sure to ask how things could be better.
- Develop thicker skins.
- Before the relationship ends, find out what went right, and why, and what went wrong, and why. (Lanta 1992)

The Art of Compromise

Whether or not a consultant is used, planning activities should be flexible enough to deal with problems as they arise. Planners need techniques and a process for discovering the central issues in a problem and ways to resolve them. Throughout the process of overcoming obstacles and resolving problems, the word "compromise" becomes increasingly important.

Compromise is the process of resolving differences through mutual concessions. The process requires the parties to find a middle ground in which to reach agreement on the mix of values most acceptable in that situation. Even if only two agencies are involved in a school community center, each agency must compromise if the mix of personal and professional values most acceptable is to be found. When multiple agencies are involved, they must make compromises in their plans of action when those plans are to be placed in concert with those of others. Further, when a plan of action must be approved or financed by others—a typical government situation—additional compromises are probably required.

Overcoming obstacles, therefore, becomes the art of compromise. Achieving a compromise may require the planners to take these steps:

- Identify the issue.
- Identify those who are involved in the issue.
- Discover the values and goals of each of the parties.
- Identify alternative courses of action or possible solutions.
- Reach consensus within and between groups for a solution all can accept.

Tactics for Compromise

Compromise is a combination of merchandising, mediation, and diplomacy. The person who is trying to help a group comprise should consider the following advice:

- Seek ways for all parties to become involved.
- Try to create a situation in which opponents recognize the need to join forces.
- Find a neutral meeting place to bring parties together.
- Meet around, not across, a table; use informal seating arrangements.
- Create a balance sheet of issues and possible trade-offs.
- Have the parties prioritize items on the balance sheet in order to locate the middle ground for compromise options.
- Have participants discuss differences.
- Mediate—that is, seek a position within the acceptable range of each party.
- Be prepared to point out how each possible solution could be of value to theparticipants.
- Attempt to reconstruct the preferences of each party so that the range of alternatives becomes broader and compromise easier.
- Patiently educate the parties as to their roles and responsibilities.

- Take time—learning rates are slower than listening rates.
- Don't work out solutions in isolation; have the parties confront each other when it is time to discuss compromise.
- Create a climate for compromise; have parties broaden their relationships by encouraging casual dress and social activities preceding the session, or by recalling common interests or backgrounds.
- Never refuse to accept a proposal; allow the contributor to withdraw or modify it as the discussion proceeds.
- Remember that sincere praise is valued over constructive criticism.
- Allow two-way cooperation; let people help with the task even when help isn't required.
- Assume that everyone is honest and sincere and that differences are caused by the fact that people come from different sets of circumstances with differing points of view and goals.
- Don't expect or promise perfection.
- Be flexible; tolerate, don't berate.
- Postpone action rather than risk polarization.
- Take the attitude that no one is ever intentionally wrong. Question whether the person has all the facts and find out if he or she is able to think of the situation in another way. Learn whether there is an acceptable substitution.
- Settle for small gains and accept slow progress gracefully.
- Remember that in true compromise, no one gains all, but all gain something.
- Give all participants a chance to modify their positions, even at the end. If there is a minority report, provide an opportunity for its presentation.

Legal Issues

Some laws are designed to prevent things from happening, others to assure that they will happen, and still others to regulate them when they do happen. Laws can be changed to enable new ventures to come into existence. In Virginia, for example, a very broad law appears to enable and encourage joint ventures such as interagency programs and school community centers. Though rarely quoted, the law has existed for more than three decades; it was amended in 1976 to include the joint exercise of powers across state lines. It is reprinted here to illustrate the broad scope of this kind of law and to suggest the actions that must be taken by political subdivisions that want to exercise power or authority jointly with other jurisdictions.

CODE OF VIRGINIA

§ 15.1-21. Joint exercise of powers by counties, cities or towns.

A. Any power or powers, privileges or authority exercised or capable of exercise by any political subdivision of this Commonwealth may be exercised and enjoyed jointly with any other politicalsubdivision of this Commonwealth having a similar power, privilege or authority except where an express statutory procedure is otherwise provided for the joint exercise.

B. Any two or more political subdivisions may enter into agreements with one another for joint or cooperative action pursuant to the provisions of this section. Action by ordinance of the governing bodies of the participating political subdivisions shall approve such agreement before the agreement may enter into force.

C. Any such agreement shall specify the following:

1. Its duration.

2. Its purpose or purposes.

3. The manner of financing the joint undertaking and of establishing and maintaining a budget therefore.

4. The permissible method or methods to be employed in accomplishing the partial or complete termination of the agreement and for disposing of property upon such partial or complete termination.

5. All other necessary and proper matters.

D. The agreement, in addition to the items enumerated in subsection C hereof, shall contain the following:

1. Provision for an administrator or a joint board responsible for administering the undertaking. The precise organization, composition, term, powers and duties of any administrator or joint board shall be specified.

2. The manner of acquiring, holding (including how title to such property shall be held) and disposing of real and personal property used in the undertaking.

3. How issues of liability will be dealt with and the types, amounts and coverage of insurance.

E. No agreement made pursuant to this section shall relieve any political subdivision of any obligation or responsibility imposed upon it by law except that to the extent of actual and timely performance thereof by an administrator or joint board created by an agreement made hereunder, such performance may be offered in satisfaction of the obligation or responsibility.

F. Any political subdivision entering into an agreement pursuant to this section may appropriate funds and may sell, lease, give, or otherwise supply the administrator or joint board created to operate the undertaking with such property, personnel or services therefore as may be within its legal power to furnish.

G. Any power, privilege or authority exercised or capable of exercise by any political subdivision of the Commonwealth may be exercised and enjoyed jointly with any political subdivision of any other state or the District of Columbia subject to the provision of subsections A, B, C, D, E and F above, which shall apply mutatis mutandis. (Code 1950, § 15-13.3; 1958, c. 191; 1962, c. 623; 1976, c. 583; 1991, c. 28; 1992, c. 370.)

[Note. Act 1992, c. 370, which amended this section, in cl. 2 provides that all agreements entered into pursuant to the provisions of this section prior to the amendments of 1991 and 1992 are validated and shall continue. The 1991 amendment rewrote this section. The 1992 amendment inserted "having similar power, privilege or authority" in subsections A, and substituted "subsections A, B, C, D, E and F" for "subsections B, C, D, E, and F" in subsection G.]

Funding

Funds, personnel, time, and other resources are required to organize for change. Agencies or persons interested in the contemplated change may be willing to contribute the necessary resources. Organizations may have to reassign resources from already available funds or seek additional appropriations in the budget process. From a time standpoint, it is better to use already available funds than to go through a budgetprocess, especially since that process may require commitments that may later impede or be unacceptable in the change process. Those involved in the process should not be bound to specific results; the entire process could be corrupted if the results appeared to have been predetermined.

Dryfoos (1994) estimates the potential demand for full service schools by counting

> schools where more than 50 percent of the students are eligible for free lunches. About 20 percent of the 80,000 U.S. public elementary and secondary schools fall into that category, suggesting that at least 16,000 sites should be developed. But no state has provided the funds to move beyond the demonstration phase. It costs at least $100,000 a year to initiate even a modest school-based health and social services program, not including the in-kind contributions of both the schools and community agencies.

Many communities have already established school community centers to provide many new combinations of service and better use of existing resources with little or no new expenditures. Some centers supplement their resources with user fees. Others have found that economies in the joint operation of existing programs provide sufficient resources to improve the service delivery system. Still others have found that, following demonstration projects, the community's acceptance of the new arrangements resulted in additional funding for the projects from taxes, fees, grants, or gifts.

Funding for new projects often requires seed money from outside the normal funding channels. This may permit the startup of new projects with little or no local funds. Sometimes a relatively small local contribution, often an in-kind contribution, is required by a grantor. An in-kind contribution is generally extra effort or the application of existing community assets to the success of the proposed project. Finding funds for a particular project is a specialized activity for which help is often required. Large organizations often have grantseekers on staff, while smaller organizations may engage outside professionals to help them find funding sources or develop proposals.

Interpersonal Relationships

In a changing workplace, many participants will be concerned with their own roles and status in the new venture. Partisan analysis is a technique for helping individuals identify their net gain (the difference between losses and gains) in the new arrangements. Sometimes personal net gain must be balanced against the net gain for others with whom one is associated. In the field of human services, especially, individual staff members may accept reduced personal returns for their efforts if they can be assured that clients will benefit from the new arrangements.

It is important to provide ways for people to divulge their feelings about the changes they face. It is equally important to try to keep them from adopting inflexible positions. If an individual is willing to listen and to attempt to understand the positions of others, the area for compromise becomes broader. If an individual takes an inflexible position, compromise will have to take place in a narrower band of possible solutions, or the uncompromising person may be lost to the project.

The role of a facilitator in resolving interpersonal problems is to keep the avenues of communication as open and broad as possible. Any dispute may result in solutions not considered before the dispute arose. Disputes are evidence that people feel strongly enough about issues to take risks to support their beliefs. Disputes should not be taken lightly, nor should they be accepted as reasons to abandon a project. Considerable effort must be put into seeking an area of compromise that will permit the project to proceed.

Complexity

Issues arise more easily and solutions are more difficult when a large number of partners are included in a project. Some who have had extensive experience with interagency projects believe that the scope of a venture should be reduced in direct proportion to the number of agencies involved. Many people can agree on a few items, but too many items provide a greater basis for disagreement.

The size of the participating agencies is a problem only where there is great disparity. Large organizations tend to be more formal in their structure and communications systems; decisions take longer, and the resulting documents are likely to be precise and include generalized statements that have been accepted as standards. Smaller organizations can usually take faster action, since their decision-making process is less complex and their ability to respond to situations may be more flexible.

The smaller organization is likely to be concerned with being swallowed up by larger organizations and be reluctant to be bound to formal statements that appear to commit it to long-range projects. On the other hand, large organizations may not see anything to be gained by joint ventures with smaller organizations and may prefer to use them as suppliers.

Confidentiality

The Center for the Future of Children (1992) describes some strategies that may be used to resolve issues related to the sharing of information between agencies.

> **Informed consent.** Obtaining informed [written] consent is the most common approach to satisfying confidentiality protection.... However, a key question in utilizing this strategy is whose consent is needed? Typically, parental consent is required, although in some instances the minor's consent can suffice, for example in some reproductive health matters or when the minor meets the statutory requirements of emancipation. State law usually governs the scope of such exceptions. When a number of agencies seek consent for sharing information or records, having one form to provide the necessary authorization for all is helpful.
>
> **Intra-agency information sharing.** Sometimes, personnel are all hired or paid by one agency and are bound by that agency's confidentiality procedures. Most confidentiality statutes prohibit disclosure to outside parties but allow internal discussion among agency staff.
>
> **Legislative solutions.** In some states, the legislature passed special laws to allow information sharing by multidisciplinary teams established as a part of a particular program. Another statute sets parameters for information sharing among members of an interagency council established as part of a project.
>
> **Interagency planning and agreements**. [Agency personnel should] identify whatinformation is critical for sharing and, after reviewing all relevant laws and regulations, develop recommendations for management and statutory changes to improve use of the informed consent strategy.

Summary

The steps for reconciling differences may be simply stated:

1. Identify the problem.

2. Clarify goals and values.
3. Discover the alternatives and the consequences of each.
4. Make the choice or decision.

The process for following these steps is less simple. It may involve only a meeting of the parties to negotiate a solution, or it may involve using a third party to help reach a solution.

Resolving problems often requires a great deal of skill. Identifying the central issues and isolating the underlying problems are key to the resolution of differences. Creativity, tact, and skill are required of the facilitator who helps parties look at a problem from various perspectives and discard prior biases. These biases may have arisen from the new interpersonal relationships as the partnership developed or from communication difficulties between the groups. The problem itself may be real or imagined. If a project is not overly complex in scope or size, many of the problems can be resolved through small demonstration projects or activities that provide trial runs for those affected by the larger project.

For many, interagency projects and the development of school community centers are new types of activities and rapid progress should not be anticipated. It is useful to review the experiences of others and find out what help is available. Time and patience are necessary ingredients in any planning activity. Diplomacy is also required when two or more agencies try to restructure their organizations.

Part IV.

FACILITY OPERATION

Chapter 9

THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY CENTER BUILDING

Many facility-related decisions must be made by those who decide to create a school community center. Can an existing building be modified or should a new one be constructed? Will the new school community center be controlled by an existing agency, a new agency, or a partnership? Site and architect selection and design questions will also require serious attention if the center is to serve the community well.

A school community center should be designed through participative planning, so that patrons will accept it and use it. Representatives of the community and the participating agencies should be involved in every stage of design and construction, or reconstruction. In addition, the services of an architect or engineer are usually essential because cost estimates must be prepared before a referendum or other funding authorization can be sought.

New vs. Existing Buildings

In deciding between new and existing buildings, planners have to address three basic issues: the cost of building new facilities compared to the cost of adapting older ones to new uses; the adequacy or appropriateness of existing buildings compared to the problems of designing new multi-tenant facilities; and the location of existing facilities compared to the availability and appropriateness of new sites. Additions to existing buildings also involve new construction and renovation considerations.

Cost factors. If several agencies decide to join together in one facility rather than build separate facilities, the cost of a new building may be an attractive alternative. The cost of renovations can be substantial, and the increased cost of maintenance, energy, and other operating expenses in an older building may bring the life cycle costs of renovation very close to the cost of a new building.

The extent of any modification is within the control of the planners. Many school community centers have been introduced into existing buildings without structural modifications and few mechanical changes. Most renovations provide for cosmetic changes to make the space more attractive, more accessible, and more usable by new programs. A wealth of information is available to planners from the Council of Educational

Facility Planners, International (CEFPI), 8687 E. Via de Venture, Suite 311, Scottsdale, Arizona 95258-3347; (602) 948-2337.

Design factors. The qualities of attractiveness, flexibility, and adaptability desirable in a school community center can be obtained in an existing building as well as in a new building. Analyses of public school buildings have shown that many of them are very adaptable. Some were constructed with movable interior walls, facilitating a variety of spatial arrangements. The Educational Facilities Laboratories' *Surplus School Space: Options and Opportunities*, (1976) describes former schools that have been converted into apartment buildings, senior citizen housing, art centers, private dining clubs, etc. Obviously, age, cost, location, and other factors must be considered in assessing the possibility of adapting an existing building.

Structural analysis of an existing building is made by the architect or engineer prior to remodeling. Once nonessential walls are removed, new spacial arrangements can be made. Sketches will illustrate (a) how an existing building is arranged, (b) what load-bearing walls and columns are required to support upper floors or the roof, and (c) possible rearrangements to accommodate new programs.

Space consolidations. Agencies whose programs will be using the facility must state their needs, usually requesting more space than was previously occupied. One of the architect-planner's tasks is to reduce space requests to reasonable sizes. However, the architect-planner must be sensitive to relationships between the various programs, so that any consolidation of space treats programs equitably. One method for achieving this is illustrated on the following chart.

SPACE CONSOLIDATION

Agency A Needs	Agency B Needs	Agency C Needs	Who Can Share Space	Conditions
Meeting room	Conference room	Classroom	A-B-C	Establish priorities
Craft room	Work room	Art room	A-B-C	Storage of goods + establish priorities
Administrative suite daytime	Office area evenings		A-B	Furniture + storage of goods+ defined access time

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Conditions for Sharing Space

Some of the factors that must be considered in determining whether or not space can be shared are:

- *Access.* Will participating agencies have ready access to needed space?
- *Priority scheduling.* If there is a time conflict in space requirements, which agency will have priority? (This assumes that a space reservation will be required some time in advance of a program.)
- *Storage.* No user is ever confident that enough storage space has been provided; when multiple users occupy the same space, more storage must be provided and assigned.
- *Equipment.* Equipment provided must meet the requirements of the most specialized user, and this may be a problem to less sophisticated users. Adequate service, including operational staff, must be provided so that all users' needs may be met.
- *Furniture.* Furniture for multiple-use space must be adequate for the needs of every using agency with respect to amount, size, and type. The building staff must be responsible for arranging furnishings to suit each program, since no program person likes to rearrange the furniture each time the space is used.

Location of Facilities

To be of greatest service to a community, the school community center should be easily reached by public transportation, should be in a well-used location, should not intrude on other uses of that location, and should not bring unacceptable conditions to a residential neighborhood or rural areas. These criteria may be met most easily in an existing building in which new uses would not be disturbing to the neighborhood; in a new site in a planned new community; or in an urban renewal site. From the client viewpoint, location is an important determinant on whether or not a school community center will be well used.

Zoning and Building Codes

Zoning ordinances limit the type of activity permitted in certain sections of a community and restrict conditions that could affect the environment in which the building is located. Environmental concerns covered by zoning ordinances may include such factors as the number of parking spaces required and how they are provided; the height and appearance of the structures, including the use of building identification signs; and the amount of land required for the structure and how much of

it may be covered by water-repellent surfaces. A former school may comply with the zoning code, but changing the type of activities conducted in the building may put it out of compliance. Zoning staff should be included in the planning activities, so that a clear understanding is reached about whether or not the new use will be permitted or what kinds of changes will be required to bring new uses into compliance.

Building codes are generally concerned with the safety of the users of the facility, but also regulate the emissions (acoustical as well as chemical) that may affect the neighborhood and the community in general. Occupancy permits are issued when a building is found to be in compliance with the building code; they must be obtained whenever a building is being constructed, altered, or converted to a new use. A walk-through inspection is recommended before significant structural changes or altered uses are planned.

A zoning board may require statements of support from immediate neighbors and local civic associations before considering changes in existing conditions. This affords the applicant an opportunity to discuss proposed changes with neighbors and to resolve differences before formal arrangements are set forth in rezoning procedures.

Some items regulated by zoning or building codes are:

- Type of activity conducted at a site.
- Parking arrangements (to meet the needs of patrons of the structure and reduce on-street parking).
- Percentage of the site that can be used for structures or paving.
- Fencing, screening, and other factors related to appearance and protection.
- Disposal of storm waters and placement of structures.
- Fire protection and safety.
- Amount of space required for various activities, such as large group assembly, restrooms, service areas.
- Exits and entrances, including emergency passages.
- Ventilation and lighting.
- Structural strength.
- Storage spaces and conditions.

Many of these same factors affect the structure's fire and liability insurance rates. Some compliance costs may be offset by reduced insurance costs.

Neighborhood Impact

Immediate neighbors will be affected by the activities carried on in the structure and may have more concerns than the zoning codes suggest. The hours of operation, the numbers and kinds of patrons, noise, and site lighting may affect neighbors adversely. Neighbors should be on the planning committee, and some mechanism should be in place for responding to their concerns. A civic, owners, or neighborhood association may serve as a liaison between neighbors and the school community center. Involving the neighborhood in planning may be a significant advantage to the center's programs.

Governance

Many forms of governance are available for interagency programs based in school community centers. Among them are:

- *Combined budget model.* Two or more agencies allocate funds to a project fund from which expenses are paid. This model is often used by agencies that do not have the capacity to operate the project separately. Governance is based in the governance structure of each agency, with some powers delegated to project staff.
- *Community education model.* One agency (usually the school board) establishes the project or facility, assumes primary responsibility for it, and responds to recommendations from a community planning or advisory board on additional agencies or programs to be included in the project or facility.
- *Joint venture model.* Two or more agencies contract to establish a program or facility with delegated powers and responsibilities to fulfill a particular need. This is similar to the combined budget model, except that the contract provides a longer life. It also is similar to the community education model, except that governance is established by the contract instead of by one parent agency.
- *Landlord-tenant model.* One agency owns and controls a facility, and establishes conditions under which others may occupy space on a short-term (rental) or long-term (lease) basis. Program relationships in this model are often ad hoc.
- *New unit model.* This model is established by legislative action: a local ordinance or state law creates a new agency by removing functions from one or more existing agencies and providing a new mandate to service a need.

Joint Ownership and Management

Joint ownership and management assumes that the partner agencies have had strong, harmonious relationships over a considerable period of time. It is a formal arrangement requiring legal assistance to assure that the relationship operates within the legal constraints of each participating agency. Legal documents must be prepared specifying the details of any lease agreements; the rights and responsibilities of each participating agency; all administrative and financial agreements (including what will occur if one partner is unable to fulfill its financial agreements); and the conditions and procedures for terminating the relationship. Each of the agreements must recognize procedures for the mutual acceptance of key project employees, for concurrent or mutual adoption of implementing procedures and policies, and for reconciling differences. The agreements should provide for third-party procedures to be used to resolve disputes (arbitration, mediation, etc.). Joint ownership and management should be viewed as a permanent arrangement, and negotiations for its establishment should be conducted from this perspective. In short, participating agencies will create a new unit by delegating powers and will execute contracts for the joint management of the school community center based on their intent to provide coordinated programs and services that rely upon long-term partnerships.

Landlord-Tenant

This form assumes that an agency has excess space that it is willing to have occupied by other agencies, or that an agency is in a position to include additional space in its plans for a new building. This is a common managerial arrangement, especially as schools are affected by declining enrollment. An agency planning to construct more space than it currently needs may indicate that the arrangements with tenant agencies will be short term, until the space is needed for its own use.

Tenant arrangements may include a use permit for periodic use of certain spaces or a lease-contract for space dedicated to the tenant agency. A use permit may be an oral understanding, an interdepartmental memorandum, or an administrative form designed by the landlord agency. In some states, state law permits school boards to allow use of school property for nonschool purposes and to be the lessor or lessee of property. A lease, more formal than a permit, is usually prepared by legal counsel.

Items Included in Lease Agreements

- Legal identification of the parties and their authorized representatives.
- Description of the property, types of uses permitted under the lease and, frequently, specification of responsibility for obtaining zoning clearances.
- Liability agreements—insurance requirements and "hold harmless" agreements.
- Whether structural modifications are permitted, with or without obtaining prior permission from the owner. This may also indicate whether the tenant has a right to remove items such as air conditioners, built-in cabinetry, etc., upon expiration of the lease, and in what condition the premises must be returned to the owner.
- Services to be provided by the lessor: custodial care, utilities, repairs, security, etc.
- Responsibility of lessee and lessor programs, if any. There is usually a clause pertaining to recourse in the event that one program interferes with another.
- Hours and days when use of the space will be permitted, and how the tenant may arrange for extended hours or days. Also, procedures for occasional use of additional space or shared use of special-purpose non-leased space are described.
- Payment procedures: how much, when, what happens in case of default.
- Term of the lease and conditions for termination and/or renewal.
- Method of resolving disputes and handling complaints.
- Responsibilities in the event of destruction of property or if the owner requires the property before the end of the lease—how much help or relief the owner must provide the tenant to relocate.

Summary

School community centers are places where essential community services are combined to conserve community resources and better accommodate those who need those services. Cooperative relationships between the tenant agencies will result in better linkages of services, possibly increasing service availability and reducing costs. Careful arrangements of spaces can help increase the effectiveness of the center and reduce potential conflicts associated with multiple tenants with diverse patron populations sharing a single building.

Because of their location and type of construction, school buildings are excellent choices for school community centers. They are adaptable and can serve the extended needs of the community when decreased enrollment results in excess space. In addition, the requirements for operating personnel in school buildings are similar to those that would be required in a building with multiple tenants.

Chapter 10

MANAGING THE SCHOOL COMMUNITY CENTER

The skills and attitudes of managerial personnel will strongly affect the success of the school community center. Even well-designed facilities will fail to meet community needs if the management is highly bureaucratic. On the other hand, cooperative and solution-seeking managers can transform an inadequate facility into a valuable community asset.

General Supervision

When the center is part of a school, overall supervision will usually be vested in the school principal. Program responsibilities may be assigned to a community education coordinator, whose primary function is to work with community education programs but who can greatly assist the school principal by assuming some of the responsibilities in communication and public relations.

Supervisory relationships need not follow the usual organizational patterns. Supervisory training programs should include interdisciplinary training and experiences aimed at developing better understanding of the concerns of all of the involved agencies.

Building Management

Regardless of the form of management adopted, a school community center needs a building manager and an operating staff. The building manager must be concerned with scheduling and with maintaining and operating a facility that serves the needs of multiple programs. He or she should have, in addition to managerial skills, a high degree of tact and diplomacy because of the relationships that must be maintained with the various program personnel and patrons. The manager must be an employee of the agency that is the landlord or prime user of the facility and should report to the facility's highest ranking program person.

The building manager is responsible for scheduling routine housekeeping work in such a way that it does not interfere with the various programs. If specialized equipment is used by more than one program in the facility, the building management staff must be prepared to service, operate, and maintain it. Building management in a school community

center may also include budgeting, payroll, rent, record keeping, and concession management.

The manager is responsible for keeping the facility functioning as many as seven days a week, and 14 or more hours a day. This involves supervising custodial staffing for housekeeping and furniture rearrangements as needed. Maintenance and technical services must be available to the using agencies with minimal inconvenience to their programs. The manager must schedule space in such a way that priorities are respected and procedures established for making changes as necessary. The environment must be kept safe, secure, controlled, and responsive to emergencies, so that each using agency may focus its attention and resources on program issues.

Conditions Affecting Housekeeping, Maintenance, and Security Staff in a School Community Center

- Late evening and early morning schedules.
- Long daily operating periods.
- Holiday and vacation operation.
- Equipment and furniture scheduling and servicing.
- Changing patrons—numbers, types, and needs.
- Scheduling cleaning and servicing around program requirements.
- Larger custodial and maintenance workforce.
- Supervision of shift workers.
- Concessionaires' needs.
- Special needs of occasional programs.

Building Manager Model

The building manager is a member of the managerial staff of the landlord agency. When the owner is a school board, the building manager functions under the general direction of the school principal, and is responsible for coordinating facility use (buildings, grounds, and equipment) by school and community groups. The building manager does not have program responsibilities, but is concerned with:

- Scheduling facility use by various groups and maintaining a calendar of activities.
- Scheduling equipment and service requirements.
- Managing maintenance and custodial service:
  -Securing and scheduling necessary staff.
  -Securing and maintaining supplies and equipment.
  -Organizing and scheduling preventive and major maintenance work.
- Coordinating and supervising safety and security programs.

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- Managing rental programs and concessionaire contracts.

The building manager in a larger facility may be assisted by a head custodian and a maintenance foreman, whose work shifts may differ from the building manager's so that the facility is supervised at all times.

When the facility is to be operated for long hours or more than five days a week, an assistant manager or an evening supervisor may be hired. The responsibilities of this position would include:

- Security of the facility.
- Fire and safety regulations.
- Directing patrons to scheduled program areas.
- Providing information about program schedules.
- Enforcing appropriate regulations for facility use.

Community Facility Coordinator Model

The community facility coordinator is a member of the staff of a tenant agency, but functions as the representative of the landlord agency with respect to:

- Scheduling facility use by various groups and maintaining a calendar of activities.
- Scheduling equipment and service requirements for facility use.
- Arranging with the chief on-site representative of the landlord for necessary maintenance and custodial service.
- Working with the chief on-site landlord agency representative concerning the safety and security programs.
- Enforcing appropriate regulations for facility use.

The coordinator, as a member of the tenant agency, performs additional functions of a program nature including:

- Working with an advisory council to determine community program needs.
- Arranging, staffing, and scheduling community programs.
- Providing information about program schedules at this and other school community centers.

Community Education Coordinator Model

This position focuses more on program responsibility than on facility management. The community education coordinator may be a member of the staff of either the landlord agency or the tenant agency. Responsibilities will vary according to the employing agency and local conditions. In general, the primary functions of this position are:

- Working with an advisory council to determine community program needs.
- Arranging to meet those needs, including staffing and scheduling community programs.
- Providing information about relevant programs and resources in response to expressed community needs.

Additional responsibilities may be assigned to this position for facility management during regular school or after-school hours. These may include a variety of combinations of the services listed in the building manager and community facility coordinator models described above.

Policies and Procedures

Policies are guides to action. Policies for scheduling the use of facilities should include:

- Identification of center areas and agreed-upon priorities for their use.
- Procedures for scheduling use.
- Procedures for the resolution of differences.
- Itemization of conditions under which the facilities may be used by tenants under long-term lease or short-term agreements.
- Schedule of charges (or cost reimbursement) for different categories of users and the disposition of any fees collected.
- Risk-management requirements, such as assumption of liability by user-agencies' insurance.
- Assignment of responsibilities for enforcing policies and regulations.

Short-Term Rentals

Short-term rentals of space or equipment may be permitted under terms and conditions set forth by the facility owners.

Space Scheduling

Procedures for scheduling space in a school community center should establish priorities for each area with respect to the spaces themselves, the hours of the day, days of the week, or periods of the year. For example, if a school is designated as a school community center, educational programs will have top priority for classroom spaces during the school day; secondary priority may be given to other tenant agencies, and third- and fourth-level priority to other groups. Generally, priorities are established in the basic agreements entered into when the school community center is created; the management of those priorities is the responsibility of the building manager.

Scheduling procedures should recognize that program requirements change and should allow for "bumping" as needed. For example, if Agency A has first priority for Space 1 but does not schedule it during the specified time for invoking priorities, Agency B may claim the space and incorporate its use into Agency B's programs. Then, if Agency A finds that it does after all require Space 1, there should be a provision for bumping Agency B upon reasonable notice. Of course, if Agency B is unwilling to yield or has made a heavy investment for its planned use of Space 1, a dispute will arise. If the agencies cannot negotiate a settlement, an appeals procedure should be in place to resolve the dispute quickly.

The building manager should maintain a calendar of special events to help agencies plan their activities, even though programs may not require the same building space. For example, competing programs could place too heavy a demand on parking facilities. The building manager should seek reservations for spaces quarterly or semiannually, and should arrange for competing requests to be considered at a meeting of the requesting agencies so that each may develop a better understanding of the needs of the others. These sessions will also encourage agencies to trade off priorities, equipment, and resources.

Cost-Sharing Arrangements

There are several ways in which participating agencies may share the costs of operating a school community center: pro-rata assessments in proportion to the amount of space occupied; hourly or daily rates for the space used; agreed-upon amounts set forth in documents establishing the center; trade-offs (service in lieu of cash, for example); or a separate fund covering all or most of the participating agencies. When there is no lease agreement, the customary method for cost sharing is the establishment of either an arbitrary rate or a pro-rated amount of the current operating costs. If there is a formal agreement, more precise determinations are reached by amortizing the capital values of land and building, including operating costs, and assessing an overhead factor. Costs arrived at in this way are usually based on a square-footage calculation according to the amount of assigned space for each agency, regardless of the actual hours of use. Following are some examples of cost-sharing methods.

- Trade-offs in lieu of actual billing. (Example: Dana Whitmer Human Resource Center, Pontiac, Michigan.)

- Assess cost per square foot for actual space occupied; charge fees for periods in which additional space is shared. (Example: John F. Kennedy Community Center, Atlanta, Georgia.)
- A community services fund carries plant costs; management of the fund is assigned to one of the agencies. Fees are charged for occasional uses. (Example: Thomas Jefferson Junior High and Community Center, Arlington, Virginia.)
- Space is leased to tenant agencies on an annual basis; charges are based on square-foot usage.
- Shared space (meeting halls, etc.) is rented on a per-use basis.
- Losses are underwritten by central government. (Example: Town Center Management Corporation, Buffalo, New York.)
- The facility is zoned, so that each tenant agency must maintain its own space and pay its own utility bills.
- Utilities and maintenance are shared, but custodial care is left to each tenant.
- The landlord agency negotiates fees for specific services or needs.

A landlord agency that charges other agencies for space used must be careful not to become a profit-making entity, thereby jeopardizing its status and immunity as a government agency.

The following chart shows how costs might be pro-rated.

CALCULATING PRO-RATA COSTS

Data Needed: · Building area—usable space plus service areas
· Site size
· Valuation of site

Calculation:

a. Direct costs to satisfy user requirements (includes painting, remodeling, and other special requirements) $_____

b. Land value $_____
Value for which the building is insured _____
times 5% = $_____

c. Utility costs
Fuel $_____
Electricity _____
Water _____
Total $_____

d. Custodial costs
Payroll $_____
Fringe benefits _____
Total $_____

e. Maintenance
Building insurance $_____
Preventive maintenance (may be pro-rated on a square-foot basis) $_____
Major maintenance anticipated $_____

GRAND TOTAL OF COSTS $_____

Divide by area of the building = $ per square foot.*
Multiply by portion assigned = $ cost to tenant.

*Note: Costs may be apportioned according to space occupied, leaving other service spaces (general toilets, boiler room, etc.) out of the calculation. A portion of the administrative costs for operating the facility may also be included.

Chapter 11

KEY ELEMENTS FOR SUCCESS

Each school community center project is a distinct mix of ingredients that vary according to the participating agencies, the locality, the environment (legal, political, social), and the time period in which it was developed.

Some Key Questions to Be Addressed

- Why is the project being started?
- Have the cooperating agencies developed a climate for cooperation?
- Has a blueprint or charter been established setting forth all the understandings reached by the project partners?
- What role will the immediate neighborhood and the program clients play in planning and programming?
- How will new and existing programs be evaluated, and what will be done with the evaluations?
- What roles will the participating agencies and patron groups play in the management of the facility?
- How will the impact of the center on the immediate neighborhood and the community at large be monitored (property values, K-12 programs, businesses, community improvements, vandalism, crime, etc.)?
- Will individual programming or multi-group co-programming and coordination be a goal? How will this goal be promoted?
- What impact will the center have on relationships between the governing boards of the participating agencies? What will be the effects of any changes?

Individual answers to these question will help a facilitator recognize whether participants are motivated by a desire to *compete* or a desire to *make things better*. If competition is the objective, developing a school community center will be a long, hard battle. If cooperation and collaboration are the motivation, the planners will find allies, and the road will be easier. The work may still be long and hard, but patience and persistence will usually prevail over the inevitable setbacks, delays, and disappointments.

What To Monitor

Some school community centers make it; others don't. Some interagency programs are successful, while others fall apart once the initial enthusiasm has cooled. What chemistry or qualities make the difference? What can be done to keep a center or a project from failing? What are the key elements to monitor?

A review of many projects points to certain essential ingredients for successful ventures in space sharing and program integration. Clearly, the neglect of good practice and the abuse of critical relationships are forerunners to failure. Key factors that must be reckoned with are discussed briefly below.

Leadership. The most important factor in the success or failure of a school community center is the people who create the environment within which the center operates. These individuals develop and support the natural and changing program leadership by energizing forces to address changing community needs; generating community and financial support; enticing necessary partners to share interests, expertise, and resources in serving the community's needs; keeping the programs vital, exciting, and relevant; serving as communicators between various elements of the community, its agencies and power structure; and instilling confidence in team members.

Participative decision making. Collective decisions are more likely to generate support and commitment to the decisions reached. Community members, patrons, and staff members from various levels bring different perspectives to the decision-making process. Transition from a top-down decision-making model to a participative model is difficult.

The level of participation in decision making may range from consultative to democratic. Possible vehicles for expanding involvement in the decision-making process include charettes, committees, commissions, consortia, councils, hearings, study groups, task forces, workshops, etc.

Programming effectiveness. A "center" in a school community center may provide each participating agency with separate spaces, shared space or a combination of both. Programs may be maintained in one of four ways: (a) complete separation; (b) co-programming to coordinate or to interrelate several programs in order to avoid duplication; (c) consolidation in which each agency participates to the degree that it can be useful; or (d) integration of services, program personnel, and other resources.

Methods or mechanisms must be established for coordinating the various programs; considering new programs that do not fall clearly into any one agency's sphere; conducting periodic needs assessments to keep the center vital and viable, and monitoring overall effectiveness.

Governance and management. Although center governance should provide for administrative and community involvement, responsibility must be clear. The community can play a meaningful role, but legal responsibility and accountability must remain with designated officials. A climate of trust between governing boards, key executives of the parent agencies, and program managers is essential. How frequently do key officials discuss the center and its programs? How supportive are they of current programs? How willing are they to consider expansions or redirection of activities?

Management of the facility and program and cost sharing can become problem areas. Are the participating agencies and communities involved in the selection of the key management personnel? Do they set criteria for selection or screen applicants, with authority for the final selection remaining with the responsible officials? Is cost sharing simplified or complicated? Is the operating budget flexible enough to respond to valid needs? How is the operating budget set; is there a mechanism for allowing interested and involved groups to be heard? Does the budget recognize that shared equipment must be of better quality and be replaced on a different schedule?

Problem resolution. Problems arise even under the most favorable conditions. Some resolve themselves, but others may escalate into serious situations that could even threaten the continued existence of the center or partnership. A process must be in place to recognize problems that require attention, allowing for the presentation of opposing positions and investigations by decision makers. An effective process may convert some problems into opportunities.

The problem-resolution process should: (a) allow parties in the dispute enough flexibility to reach a compromise; (b) provide for non-formal resolution by intermediate supervisors with authority to allocate resources; and (c) have a representative body empowered to make a final decision.

Facility arrangements. A good facility cannot make a bad program successful, but a poor facility can handicap a good program. A good facility may be poorly managed, and poor arrangements or allocations of space may seriously hamper good programs.

At a minimum, the facility should be arranged to:

- Minimize internal cross traffic from different programs.
- Provide separate entrances, parking areas, and other essential spaces (toilets, lockers, etc.).
- Provide private areas for staff offices, work areas, storage, and lounges.
- Establish priorities for the assignment of shared space that are understood by and acceptable to all parties.
- Provide shared space that is larger and better equipped than space that is not shared; the goal is to reduce the need for rearranging space to accommodate different programs.
- Provide adequate and competent custodial, maintenance, and technical staffing.

Evaluation. Evaluation may be conducted through questionnaires, surveys, interviews, testimonials, periodic budget or program reviews, advisory committees, or formal procedures combining staff and consultant activities. Too often, evaluation is a casual activity when everything is going well and reactive when program reductions, budget cuts, or problems are imminent.

A regular, formal written evaluation can help programs gain acceptance, establish new ventures, and develop a cadre of people outside the program who are fully knowledgeable about it. A written evaluation also serves as a point of reference for future program planning and development.

When an evaluation is completed, it should be widely distributed and used as the basis for further needs assessment. Although the program may adequately meet current community needs, will it be good enough for tomorrow? To be enduring, a center or program must have the inherent capacity to change in a timely, orderly fashion.

Evaluating the School Community Center

The following series of questions was developed over two decades of observing school community centers. It is intended to supplement statistical analysis of the activities and efficiencies of interagency collaboration within the center.

Success Factors

1. When and under what circumstances was the concept adopted?
2. If there were periods of uncertainty over the concept, how was the uncertainty overcome?

3. What kinds of problems have arisen and how were they dealt with?
4. What makes some centers or programs more successful than others?
5. What is the most important element in success?
6. What is the single greatest threat to continuation of the program?
7. What combinations of elements lead to success in space sharing and program coordination?

Planning and Programming

1. What roles do the immediate neighborhood and the program patrons play in planning and programming?
2. What devices and techniques are used to motivate and encourage community participation?
3. How effective is community participation?
4. Is community influence applied in ways other than through the formal plan?
5. What techniques are used to strengthen programs?
6. What mechanism is used for developing new programs and for involving additional agencies?
7. Is a continuous needs assessment process in place and does it provide adequate information for responsive program development?

Management

1. How are the facilities managed?
2. How are faculty costs defrayed?
3. Are there different management forms in different centers; if so, why?
4. Has the management form changed since the program began; if so, why?
5. What roles do the participating agencies and patron groups play in the management of the facilities?
6. What is done to keep certain patron groups from dominating and shutting out other patron groups?

Impact

1. Has the amount of vandalism in the immediate neighborhood or the community at large increased or decreased?
2. Have crime rates changed?
3. Has there been any noticeable change in social conditions in the neighborhood or community?
4. Has the public education program been affected? How?
5. Has there been an impact on public services or on the business community?

6. Have real estate values changed? Are the changes comparable to those in other parts of the community?

Participating Agency Relationships

1. Is there interagency rivalry? How is it dealt with?
2. Have some agencies pulled out of the programs and centers? Why? Did this leave a void? How was that void filled?
3. What is the extent of co-programming? Is it ad hoc or formal?
4. How are new agencies introduced into the facility?
5. What problems have arisen? How were they resolved?
6. What type of interagency governance structure is in place and how effective is it?

Evaluation

1. How are the centers evaluated? By whom? How often? How are the results used?
2. Have center programs altered the relationship between the school board and the governing body of the city or county?
3. Have the centers been a political issue?
4. How have K-12 school programs been affected by the centers?
5. What are the measurable outcomes and are the outcomes acceptable?
6. What do you see as the next level or goal to achieve?

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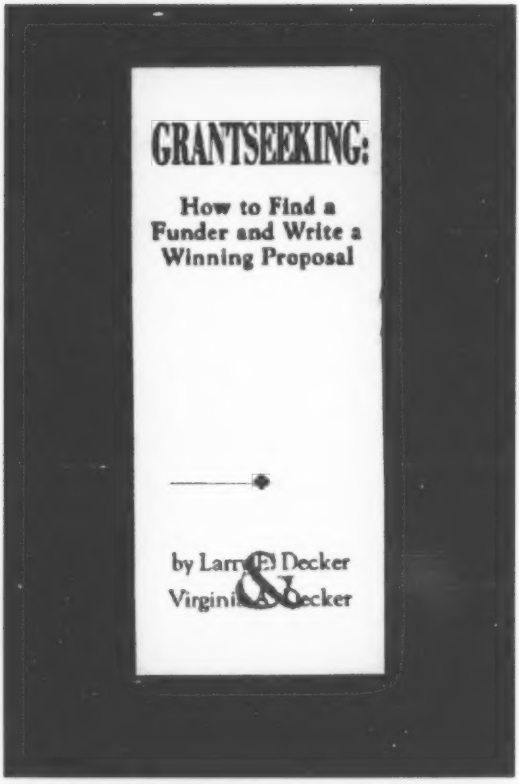

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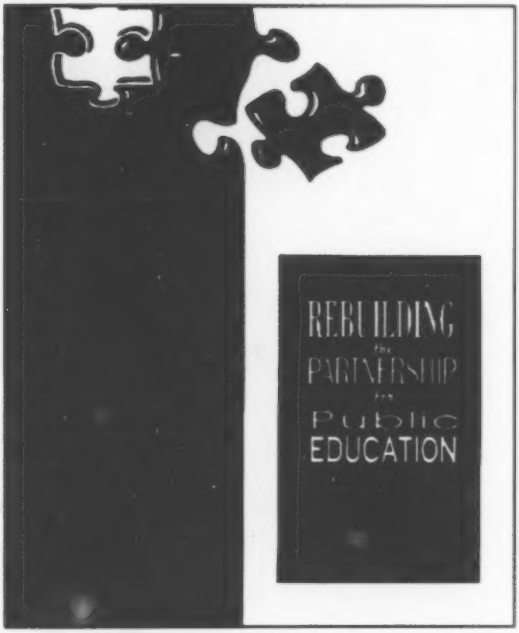

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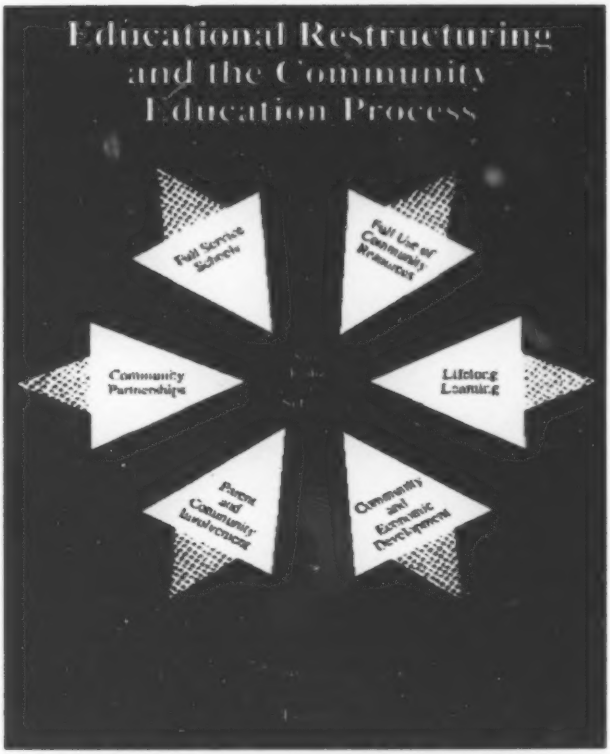

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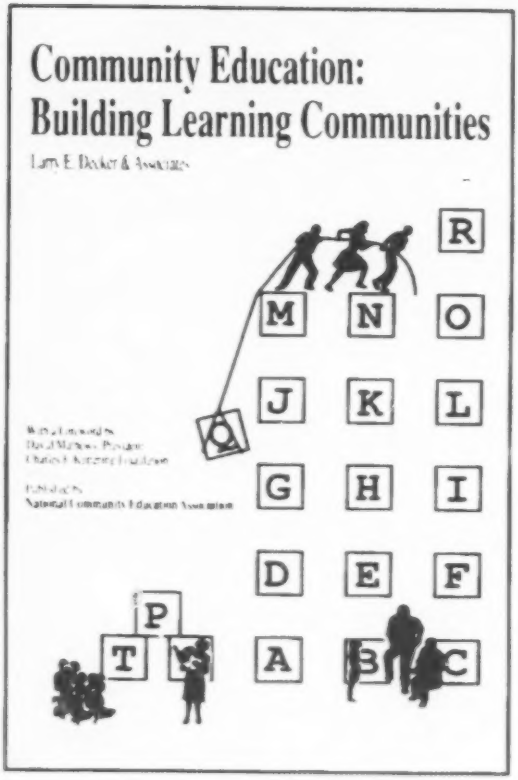

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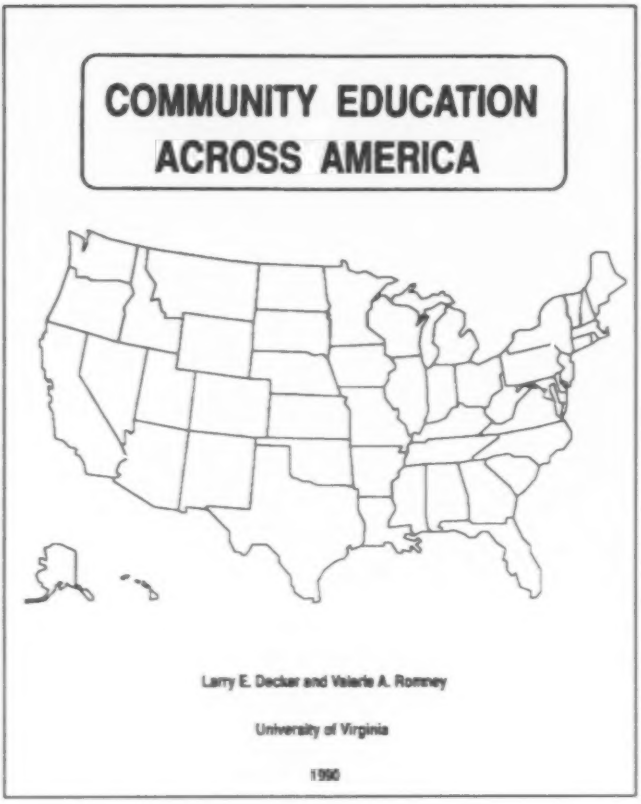

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A school community center is a place where, in addition to formal, structured youth education, educational opportunities for learners of all ages can be provided and many human services needs can be addressed. Its underlying philosophy is that when programs are located at a common site, there are more opportunities for collaboration and better coordination of programs and services.

It can have different names—full service school, community service center, human resource center, family resource center, etc. Just as there is no one name, there is no one model. Each is designed to meet the needs of a particular community. The common elements are the way they are brought into being, the problems they face, and the strategies they use to remain useful to their communities.

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